

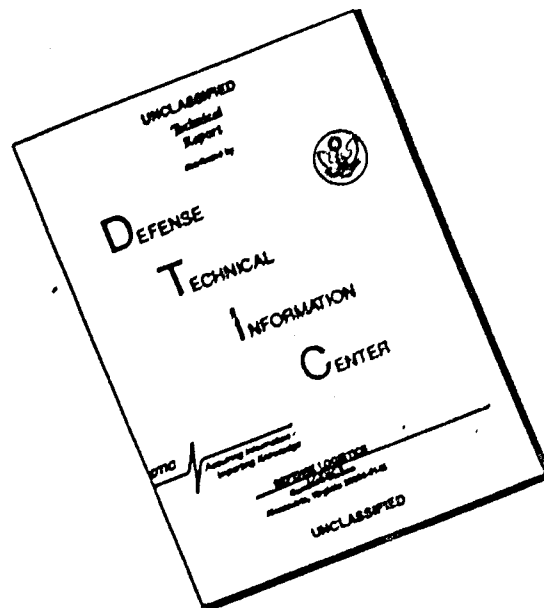
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## INTRODUCTION

↘ In the broadest sense, the U.S. Military is the largest provider of hospitality in the world, housing, feeding, and providing recreation and relaxation for volunteers, draftees (in wartime), and civilian workers that number over two million. Although we tend to think of soldiers, sailors and marines as recipients of technical training associated with defense of land, sea and air, providing housing and food to this enormous force requires staffing from among officers and enlisted personnel as well as civilians.

Lodging and feeding great numbers of people on a continuous basis is never an easy task, especially when it is sometimes done in the field, as opposed to permanent and more comfortable installation facilities. In the case of the armed services, an additional burden exists: not only does the service require a well-trained and efficient force to carry through the day-to-day objectives of hospitality, but the service men and women who provide it should have, on separation, a useful trade for reentry into civilian life.

Training service personnel for this necessary task, then, requires extraordinary care and thought, if both of these aims are to be realized. ↙

How this should be accomplished is the subject of this monograph.

## THE CONCEPT OF ADULT LEARNING AS IT APPLIES TO TRAINING

In his book Training for the Hospitality Industry, Lewis C. Forrest notes: Effective Training should emphasize learning. Everything that a trainer does should be a means to that end. The more a manager knows about the ways people learn and the factors that motivate them to learn, the more effective the training will be(83).

Learning may be described as a change in behavior, the acquisition of knowledge or skill, or both. Learning may come about as a result of training, instruction, or personal experience. Educators should all agree that learning has occurred if people behave(perform)

ADULT LEARNING - AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF  
TRAINING PROGRAMS IN  
BUREAUCRATIC-LIKE ORGANIZATIONS

A Monograph  
Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School  
of Cornell University  
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Master of Professional Studies

by  
Steven David Rosenbaum  
May 1986

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Steve Rosenbaum was born in New York City, in August of 1949. He graduated from the City College of New York in February, 1971, with a Bachelor's Degree in Speech and Communications. From 1972 until 1979, he taught in the New York and Ft. Lauderdale, FL. public school systems.

Now a captain, the author has already supervised the operation of a large military dining facility, a large dormitory complex and an 800 room military hotel. After graduation, he will be designing, administering, and conducting training programs for other U.S. Air Force officers in the "hospitality field" of the service.



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TO:

KANDI, JENNIFER, AND REBECCA

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to my family and to my advisor, Professor Francine Herman. My family has stood by me for two years putting up with the endless hours I have spent in school on group projects, monograph research, and general studies. I could not have completed this work without their endless devotion and understanding. Professor Herman has been an advisor, cheerleader, and editor for me and has kept me on track during these difficult years. Her strong guidance, effective advisement, and enthusiasm were invaluable in the preparation of this report.

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## INTRODUCTION

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differently, as a result, if they can demonstrate new skills and knowledge, and if these results are in conformance with training objectives.

Learning is a response to new stimuli through any of several training methods or simply through life experiences. The responses to these stimuli and the resultant behavior are the criteria by which training is measured.

Training in industry is concerned with teaching adults. Several educators today say that adults do not learn the same way children do. It has been shown that many methods used in the United States for educating children in the public school system are often rejected by adults. Classroom lectures, or simple demonstrations, do not yield the same productive results as they seem to with the younger generation (Forrest, 83). Research has shown that there are several principles that separate adult learning from traditional learning.

1. Adults must WANT to learn.
2. Adults must NEED to learn.
3. Adults learn by doing.
4. Adult learning must focus on realistic problems.
5. Experience affects adult learning.
6. Adults learn better in an informal atmosphere.
7. A variety of methods should be used.
8. Adults want guidance, not grades. (Forrest, 84-87)

These are general concepts. Much research has uncovered many more practical ideas, instructions and characteristics of the adult learner. For example, in the introduction to Androgogy in Action, Malcolm C. Knowles makes these further assumptions:

1. Adults have a need to be self-directing.
2. Adults are a rich source of learning for each other.
3. A climate conducive to learning is very important. (1-21)

In our industry and in bureaucratic organizations, training is usually imposed. An executive may be unhappy with a situation in his/her organization, or may have returned from a conference where training was a hot issue. This same executive may decide that the firm needs training, NOW! Without proper consideration and design, training is often haphazard and worthless; it may even be destructive. And, more likely than not, it will take

the form of a lecture or traditional classroom instruction.

The purpose of this study is to examine the concepts and principles of adult learning as they relate to training. First, research on adult learning will be presented. Then, considerations for training and the steps necessary to establish a training program will be reviewed. Third, methods of learning/training, which best apply to adults, will be discussed. Finally, a model will be constructed as an example of an effective training program in a military lodging facility, or any military- like organization.

## CHAPTER ONE

### HISTORY OF ADULT LEARNING-THE ROOTS

Any theory of adult learning, should begin with a definition of learning and a history of learning theory. Unfortunately, the definition of "learning" is hard to pin down. There are many views of this phenomenon. Learning is often differentiated from education. Learning emphasizes the person in whom the change occurs or is expected. In education, the emphasis is on the educator, the agent of change, who presents stimuli and reinforcement for learning activities to induce change. . R.M. Smith suggested that learning itself may be referred to as

- (a). The acquisition and mastery of what is already known about something.
- (b). The extension/clarification of meaning of ones existence.
- (c). An organized, intentional process of testing ideas relevant to problems. ( qtd. in Knowles, A Neglected Species: 10)

Another consideration would be to look at what we mean by "adult". According to Knowles, there are four definitions of adult: 1) the biological definition considers a person an adult at the age of reproduction--early adolescence; 2) the legal definition is the age at which we can, for example, vote, get a drivers license, marry without consent; 3) the social definition of adult is one who starts performing adult roles, such as the role of full-time worker, spouse, parent, voting citizen, and the like; and finally, 4) the psychological definition considers an adult one who arrives at a self-concept of being responsible for one's own life, of being self-directing:

From the viewpoint of learning, it is the psychological definition that is most crucial. But it seems to me that the process of gaining a self-concept of self-directedness starts early in life...and grows cumulatively as we become biologically mature, start performing adult-like roles.....and take increasing responsibility for making our own decisions.....But most of us probably do not have full-fledged self-concepts of self-directedness until we leave school or college, get a full-time job, marry, and start a family. (A Neglected Species,55)

## HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

The modern theory of adult learning is Androgogy, from the Greek roots *Anere* for adult, and *Agogus* for the art and science of helping students learn. Androgogy is considered to be a unified theory of adult learning; it was coined to differentiate it from pedagogy.

In man's early times, children were not even considered for formal education; the earliest education was aimed at adults. In China, Confucius and Lao Tse were teachers of adults; the Hebrew prophets, the Greek educators such as Socrates and Plato, and the great teachers in ancient Rome, all spoke to adults. These experiences with adults led to a different process of learning than we are now accustomed to. Many of these historic teachers used a "case study" method, citing parables to be solved by the group. The "Socratic dialogue" began with a question, which the group worked on to discover a solution. Thus, learning was more of a group process rather than a passing on of knowledge (Knowles, "Theory and Practice", 6.3)

From the seventh to the twelfth centuries, schools for children were set up in the cathedrals and monasteries and later in secular institutions. These programs advocated teaching/learning as a transfer of content from teacher to student, the "empty vessel approach". This teaching method was called Pedagogy. The word is from the Greek roots *Ped* for child, and *Agogus* for leader of (Knowles, Androgogy in Action, 5-6)

In the beginning of the 20th century, adult education was begun as a separate entity from public school here in the U.S. The methods used were pedagogical, the only model teachers then knew, and resulted in high dropout rates, low motivation, and poor performance. Teachers were the sole authority, deciding what and how the students should learn. Students, even though most were adults, were expected to absorb all they were taught blindly. Unfortunately, the results were not very good. One must consider, however, the waves of immigrants coming to the United States at that time. Language skills, among other

things, were desperately needed. Perhaps, pedagogy was the only means of training in this situation. The results, however, are consistent with the theories of learning. The immigrants, for the most part, were probably highly motivated and eager to learn. Why, then, were the results poor?

The first individual known to work with the theory of androgogy was the German scientist Eugen Rosenstock, who in 1921 used this philosophy in adult education (Knowles, *A Neglected Species*, 50). The first major writing on the subject was in 1926, when Eduard C. Lindeman published The Meaning of Adult Education. Here, he first presented the ideas of this theory. Gessner provided these other Lindeman writings which more clearly elaborated on those ideas:

I am conceiving adult education in terms of a new technique for learning, a technique as essential to the college graduate as to the unlettered manual worker. It represents a process by which the adult learns to become aware of and to evaluate his experience. To do this he cannot begin by studying "subjects" in the hope that some day this information will be useful. On the contrary, he begins by giving attention to situations in which he finds himself, to problems which include obstacles to his self-fulfillment. Facts and information from the differentiated spheres of knowledge are used, not for the purpose of accumulation, but because of need in solving problems. In this process the teacher finds a new function. He is no longer the oracle who speaks from the platform of authority, but rather the guide, the pointer-out who also participates in learning in proportion to the vitality and relevance of his facts and experiences. In short, my conception of adult education is this: a cooperative venture in nonauthoritarian, informal learning, the chief purpose of which is to discover the meaning of experience; a quest of the mind which digs down to the roots of the preconceptions which formulate our conduct; a technique of learning for adults which makes education coterminous with life and hence elevates living itself to the level of adventurous experiment. (qtd. in Knowles, *A Neglected Species*, 30)

In 1928, Lindeman wrote his classic study on adult intelligence, Adult Learning. He determined that the ability to learn does not decline until the age of 35, and then only at the rate of 1% per year, a denial of the conventional wisdom that "you can't teach old dogs new tricks". Further research in this field, altered Lindeman's ideas still further by showing that with age, only the *speed* of learning declined, not the power to learn.



Over the next 30 years more research was undertaken on the subject of learning and adults. Clinical psychologists added knowledge about the process of behavioral change; social psychologists studied the effects of the environment on learning; sociologists studied the consequences of institutional policies and procedures, norms and rewards; and developmental psychologists wrote on the stages of development during the adult years. This multi-discipline research clarified the uniqueness of adult learning. In the 50's several books on the subject were written including : Androgogy: Nature, Possibilities and Boundaries of Adult Education (1951) and Introduction to Androgogy: Basic Issues in Adult Education (1957). The theory was used in the Netherlands by Professor T.T. ten Have, who delivered lectures on the subject, and published outlines for the Science College of Amsterdam. He then established at the University of Amsterdam a department of pedagogical and androgogical science which offered a doctoral program in the field (Knowles, A Neglected Species, 50).

In the 70's there was an increasing use of the 'androgogical' theory in France, England, Venezuela, and Canada. In fact, a bachelors degree in Androgogy began to be offered at Concordia University in Montreal as of 1973. In the United States the foremost authority or proponent of Androgogy was Malcolm Knowles, who first published his book The Adult Learner.... A Neglected Species in 1970. It has been revised several times since. Knowles' ideas have been the basis for numerous articles, hypotheses, and adult education programs. He has recently edited Androgogy in Action, a collection of writings by many associates in the field of adult learning. The book includes a section demonstrating the practical uses of androgogy today. The time has arrived for androgogy to be considered as a foremost theory in the education and training of adults.

## THE THEORY OF ANDROGOGY

The theory of androgogy can be explained rather simply. However, there are three groups of learning theories, or models of man, which influence how it is used. We can use these theories to decide which model is appropriate to the particular situation at hand.

For example, the behaviorist theories (stimulus-response) equate man with a machine. A stimulus, or input, is delivered and processed, and a response or output is achieved. This model concludes that the purpose of education is to produce prescribed behaviors--those that the teacher decides on. This model would advocate the use of programmed instruction, teaching machines, computer assisted learning, drills, and the like (Knowles, "Theory and Practice", 6.6).

The second model is based on the cognitive theories. These equate man with his brain. The purpose of learning is thought to be the teaching of the brain to engage in problem-solving and critical thinking. This model advocates didactic instruction, rote memorization, standardized testing and so on (Knowles, "Theory and Practice", 6.6).

The last group of theories are the Organismic (or humanistic) theories. These state that humans are genetically determined, and thus unique, each having his own potential: therefore, the purpose of learning is to encourage each individual to develop his own full, unique potential. These theorists advocate the use of discovery methods, individual learning projects, and self-directed learning (Knowles, "Theory and Practice", 6.6).

The proponents of each theory think they alone are right. It is obvious now, however, that each is appropriate under particular conditions. Applying these theories to business organizations it is suggested that the behaviorist theory is preferred when the employee needs only to learn basic skills; the cognitive theory works in operations requiring didactic teaching; and the more complex, self-directed operations will require the humanistic approach.

It appears that the stimulus-response theory is most inappropriate to proponents of

Androgogy. The basic principles as outlined by Forrest in Training for the Hospitality Industry are:

1. Adults must want to learn. Children are told to learn. Adults need a strong inner motivation to develop new skills or knowledge. They must be ready. We have to explain, defend, and justify how it will benefit them in order to achieve the best results.
2. Adults must have a need to learn. The idea must be practical, with promotion or other immediate benefits. Adults expect results immediately. They have little patience for a lot of preliminaries. The training must concisely and directly tell them the what, how and why at the beginning of training.
3. Adults learn best by doing. They need immediate and repeated participation in the learning proceess and lots of practice.
4. There must be a realistic focus. Specific examples must go along with general rules. Adults learn faster when the learning begins with specific problems drawn from their own or other's actual experiences. Solving these problems and identifying principles is better than teaching the principles first.
5. Experience affects the adult learner. Adults have a crowded "slate". The trainer must find a way to fit in the new knowledge. Allowances must be made for interruptions, questions, and disagreements. A give and take to determine the experience level of trainees is valuable and important. This will enable the trainer to present ideas in a more acceptable format.
6. Training should be in an informal mode, but it must be orderly. Trainees must have the freedoms that do not necessarily exist on the job. They must be dealt with as colleagues, not as subordinates.
7. A variety of methods should be used. Learning is most quick when appealing to more than one sensory "channel". Audio visual techniques are a favorite. But the trainer must consider what is to be accomplished. If a behavioral change is the goal, then there must be a

lot of involvement. If facts are to be presented, then a more practical approach is necessary.

8. Guidance is important, grades less so. Avoid statistics, grades, tests, etc. Adults do want feedback, however. They are impatient with errors, set high goals, are easily discouraged and sensitive in front of their peers. Praise and constructive criticism are essential. (83-87)

Malcolm Knowles differentiates between the pedagogical and androgogical models in several respects. The pedagogical model is the one which we all should be most familiar with. In fact, for many of us, the only type of education we know is that which has dominated the school systems for centuries. Knowles has established models for both the pedagogical and androgogical approaches in The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species. These are paraphrased below for direct comparison (53-61).

#### Traditional Learning - The Pedagogical Approach

1. Concept of Learner -- A dependent personality whose only role is to submissively carry out the teachers directions.

2. Learners Experience -- Learners enter with little experience of value. Only the experience of the teacher is The backbone of the methodology is in the transmission techniques.

#### A New Approach to Learning - The Androgogical Model

1. Concept of Learner -- The learner is self directing. This need and tendency must be used by the trainer or or educator in devising learning strategies.

2. Learner's Experience - Adults enter into an activity with a greater volume and quality of experience. Each adult is a rich important resource for another. The range of experience among a group varies tremendously. Greater emphasis may be placed on individualized learning plans, such as learning contracts. However, previous experience may also become a roadblock. Strategies must be developed to overcome this. The adult's experience must be considered in order to tap the rich resources for learning and avoid unnecessary problems.

3. Readiness to Learn \_ Students supposed to become ready  
Key is promotion;  
related to age.

4. Orientation to Learning -  
Subject orientation toward  
learning; a process of acquiring  
prescribed subject matter and  
content.

5. Motivation to learn --  
Primarily by external pressures  
from parents and teachers, competition for grades, etc.

3. Readiness to Learn -- Adults are become ready to learn when they need to or must do something to readiness is improve some aspect of their lives.  
Chief sources of readiness are changes - developmental or life.  
There are ways, however, to induce the readiness, such as exposure to effective role models, engagement in career planning and diagnostic experiences in which they can assess the gaps between present and desired conditions.

4. Orientation to Learning -- Life centered, task-centered orientation.  
This is a result of their need to learn based on life experience.  
Therefore, training must begin with a description of the relevance of the training to the learner's life tasks or problems.

5. Motivation to learn-- Similar external motivators, such as promotion, higher salary. But more potent motivators are internal: self-esteem recognition, better quality of life, greater self-confidence, self-actualization.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM DESIGN

The androgogical model, as shown above, results in a specific approach to the design and operation of educational and training programs. The basic format of the model is actually a process design versus a content plan used in pedagogy. The process design incorporates principles and technologies from various theories while maintaining its own integrity.

In the traditional design the teacher decides in advance the knowledge and skills to be taught. The teacher arranges the content into units, selects the means of, and develops plans for, transmission. In contrast the androgogical "facilitator" prepares a set of procedures for

facilitating the acquisition of content. His role is: to design and manage the processes for facilitating learning; to act as a content resource; and to act as a link to other content resources.

Malcolm Knowles, in Androgogy in Action (14-18) asserts that the androgogical process design consists of seven elements:

1. *Climate Setting*. One of the more important elements, it is imperative to establish a climate conducive to learning. This element can be broken into physical and psychological climates.

An appropriate physical climate dictates that there be active participation, rather than one-way transmission of information. Of course ventilation, seating, decor, and other comforts must be taken care of. Seating, in particular, is more important than most people realize. How the chairs and tables are set up can be critical to the effectiveness of the training. Knowles puts the lecturn in the corner and puts the chairs in one large circle or several small circles.

As for psychological environment several factors come into play. A climate of *mutual respect* is necessary. This can be established with name cards, sharing of personal facts, and respectful treatment. In addition, the climate must be one of *collaboration* not competition. This can be accomplished by peer helping, peer sharing and other such exercises. *Supportiveness* can be demonstrated by accepting all contributions without harsh judgement, and building on them. Again peer support groups can be helpful. Adults should not worry about asking 'dumb questions'. *Mutual Trust* must be established. People learn more from those they trust. And there must be a climate of *Openness and Active Inquiry* so that no one becomes afraid to participate, and the lesson is not dominated by the facilitator. Finally, some advocate a climate of pleasure and fun; learning should not be a 'drag'.

2. *Involving learners in mutual planning*. People tend to feel more committed to something when they have participated in planning it. There are many ways in which

students or trainees can be involved in planning the objectives of education/training, such as job and task list inventories completed by employees in the early stages of training development.

3. *Involving participants in diagnosing their own needs for learning.* Again, when employees are involved with diagnosing needs, they are more likely to want to learn the correct way to perform.

The remaining elements are similar. They include *:involving learners in formulating their learning objectives, in designing and carrying out their learning plans, and in evaluating their learning.*

The essence of this seven point plan is to give the students/trainees some input in the program and to make them feel comfortable in the process. By assuring that these elements are in place, the program director takes into account that the learners are adults, responsible and capable individuals. This should give any program a much better chance of success, since the individuals are treated with respect, which is the basis behind androgogy, and adult learning theories.

## ANDROGOGY IN USE TODAY

There are many theories of education and learning. The true test of any theory, of course, is the implementation of its principles in real situations. In Androgogy in Action, Knowles illustrates there are instances of the use of Androgogical principles from several walks of life including business, industry and government, colleges and universities, and several other educational arenas. The summaries below are taken from the section on industry, probably the most important for the purposes of this study.

### 1. LLoyds Bank of California (Androgogy in Action, 69-71)

Self-Directed learning on-the-job is the main impetus behind this program. Special features include contract learning, educational brokering, and goal setting, among others.

There are those that believe that knowledge becomes extinct shortly after we acquire it. Furthermore, there is a constant need to continue learning, and we need to take the responsibility for coping with these changes. It is true that we cannot depend on others to keep us up to date, but must be aware of the need for learning and be the master of our own education.

At Lloyds Bank, personnel are encouraged to undertake a self-assessment, followed by the establishment of measurable objectives. Agreement is then procured from the employee's manager on standards that will benefit both the individual and the firm. The agreement between the employee and the manager is known as a "learning contract." A third individual known as a "facilitator", helps to provide resources and the means or avenues for learning. Once the employee defines an avenue toward his goal, he discusses the entire plan with his manager, and moves on. The two will meet periodically to see how the employee is progressing. It is not uncommon to alter the contract from time to time.

This program has already been tried and successfully completed at LLoyds Bank. The learning contract is the focal point of self-directed learning. It is a means of blending job requirements and corporate goals with the individual's personal goals and objectives. It emphasizes the mutual responsibilities of the employee, the manager, and the organization in meeting those goals. Individuals are more successful because they have designed their own program according to their needs, while also choosing the means of learning. Ownership results in commitment.

## 2. Introducing Data Processing at an Insurance Company (Sullivan, 73-80)

Because technology changes so quickly, traditional modes of learning/training cannot keep pace with it. Commercial Union Automation Services, Inc., applied the androgical model to this problem. Specifically, employees are oriented into a process of continuing



self-directed learning; work is accomplished to assess learning needs for workers and to develop plans to meet these needs; and a learning and resource center is at hand. Other special features of the program include:

- development of an option-mix approach to training resource use;
- competency -based education;
- contract learning;
- training managers as facilitators of learning;
- getting the support of senior management; and
- writing a guidebook for employees (*The Employee Personal Development Guide for Self-Learning Planning*).

This specific program was developed between 1978 and 1982, with the goal of introducing an androgogical learning environment into a 500-person data-processing installation of a large Northeastern insurance company. The result satisfied management, pleased workers, and was rated highly by outside observers. One of the current advantages of implementing adult training in the workplace may be that it is very attractive and advantageous to the workers just entering the marketplace. Many of these people are interested in building a career, not just doing the job at hand. Managers must be aware of this and create a good learning environment, and let employees know about the benefits of the training.

The bottom line is that it is the combination of many components that make the program successful. Integral to success is the combined efforts of all levels of employee, from line workers to top management. The Education Center acts as the catalyst to market the concept, nurture the environment, and provide the methodology and resources required.

### 3. Product Use Training for Customers at DuPont (Green, 81-85)

When Du Pont developed a complicated new clinical analyzer (a machine used to analyze a variety of body fluids simultaneously), a problem arose in how to train customers

in its use in the shortest possible time. The customer-training group was committed to applying the principles of adult learning. The special features of this andragogical system design are:

- Individualized, self-paced learning;
- Orientation of learners to learner-controlled learning;
- Modular learning guidebook;
- Computer-assisted learning;
- Self-check quiz feedback;
- Use of videotapes;
- Climate setting;
- Hands-on laboratory;
- Instructors as facilitators of learning; and
- Adaptation to varied backgrounds.

Using the latest advances in training techniques, the program is individualized to allow trainees to work independently at their own pace to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to operate and maintain the new equipment.

The program design utilized several principles of androgogy, notably that trainees are seen as self-directed, problem centered, participating adults. Since customers know they will be responsible for operating the machine, they have sufficient motivation to learn. Customer response to the new learner-controlled course has been very positive. Prior training, on the other hand, had followed the more traditional lecture approach and results were not encouraging. Customers rarely used their own experience or participated in the learning process as they do now.

One of the reasons for success is that the course included a great variety of learning resources. Creatively presented computer-assisted lessons, videotapes which demonstrated maintenance procedures, and hands-on practice with the machine itself, were highlights of

the exciting new program. The keys to success are the creative use of these materials and the self-paced learning of each customer. This is appealing to the neophyte as well as the experienced users. Whatever the prior level of proficiency, participating in this exciting course proved to be a unique and rewarding adult education experience.

#### CONCLUSION: EFFECTIVENESS OF ANDROGOGY IN VARIOUS SETTINGS

The research and actual case descriptions have shown that practitioners have found the androgogical model can be applied, in whole or in part, to a wide variety of educational activities or programs and settings. Findings show that the theory is neither culture bound, nor highly content limited. It can be applied in technological and scientific endeavors, as well as in the soft core humanities and social sciences. And most importantly, it is not age restricted (Knowles, Androgogy in Action, 417).

Certain elements of the science are more widely accepted than others. Climate setting is the most widely used element of the process. This is understandable, as it can be used in almost any learning situation, and should reap the most benefits. Self-directed learning, individual instruction, contract learning, experimental learning, process design, peer helping, self diagnosis, and self-evaluation are the most prominent practices.

According to Knowles, the important concepts learned from the study of androgogy over the years are that:

1. The model is a system of elements- not an ideology that must be totally applied---it is flexible.
2. Learners participate more responsively and enthusiastically if prepared in advance for the new approach.
3. Learners experience some anxiety to this new approach, so support groups, and other such support, is vital.

4. There must be a great emphasis on training the trainer, since there is always a danger in trying something relatively new, without the proper expertise. 5. Institutions have many policies, procedures, rules, regulations, and traditions which may be incompatible with this process. There must be those that are willing to adapt both the process and the system to use this effectively.

6. The "system" will probably resist the process. Users must involve relevant personnel in the planning stage and keep them well informed throughout. (Androgogy in Action, 418-420)

In consideration of these points, it is safe to say that androgogy itself, as a theory of adult learning is here to stay. It has been integrated into many arenas in the past 20 years and shows a lot of promise. Whether it can be a force in future education and training is a function of how well it can be adapted for use in industry, government, and education. And more importantly, how well the "old guard" can be convinced that this is the way to go. But androgogy is not the only theory of adult learning and certainly not the only method. In the next few pages, we'll look at another theory which prides itself as being more effective than androgogy, a theory called synergogy.

#### THE THEORY OF SYNERGOGY

Another concept of education and training with similar precepts is described in a book called Synergogy, A New Strategy for Education, Training and Development (Mouton and Blake, 1984). Synergogy is based on self instruction, or teacherless teaching.

Mouton and Blake believe that as society moves into a more technologically demanding environment, education and training will reach beyond schools to the workplace. We must reassess the major issue of education: how best to educate. At the heart of the question is motivation, a necessary element for effective performance. Therefore learning must be rewarding and satisfying. Formal education does not motivate. Research shows the

ineffectiveness of current education and training is a result of the characteristics of the teacher student relationship. Pedagogy leads to passivity and apathy (2)

Synergogy provides an alternative to both pedagogy and androgogy, seeking to avoid the weaknesses of both. This process relies on four fundamental differences from the other approaches:

1. Replacing the authority figures with learning designs and instruments managed by a learning administrator
  2. Enabling learners to become proactive participants who exercise responsibility for their own learning
  3. Applying to education the concept of synergy, in which the learning gain that results from teamwork exceeds the gain made by individuals learning alone
  4. Using learner's colleague affiliations to provide motivation for learning.
- (Mouton and Blake, 9)

Synergogic designs create conditions which shift responsibility for learning from the teacher to the students. Therefore work toward learning creates more interest, more motivation. The identification between learners and peer teachers provides support and motivation for learning. Learning blockages traceable to the teacher-student model can be avoided by learning situations that make the fullest possible use of colleague affiliation dynamics. The Synergogic Learning Designs offer a strategy for obviating such problems. A learning design is a set of instructions and instruments that direct students' "colleague oriented" learning (Mouton and Blake, 6-7)

A better understanding of learning designs can be shown by a brief comparison with the more traditional approaches to three aspects of learning: comprehending *knowledge*, such as facts; acquisition of conceptual, mechanical *skills*; and development of *attitudes, values* and *beliefs* (Mouton and Blake, 7).

#### Knowledge:

Acquiring and integrating facts, and learning and applying principles are common goals in schools as well as industry. Two synergogic designs include: Team Effectiveness Design

and Team Member Teaching Design enabling students to work together to learn facts and principles. The basic idea is to permit members to work in the absence of an authority or expert, and to provide guidance and direction for the learning teams.

Under these two designs, learners may acquire knowledge directly from study materials in order to take part in a learning experience with their colleagues. This advances and strengthens the concepts and skills of proactive, open participation as opposed to passive reactive learning. Learning may be informal or spontaneous, but always proactive. On the negative side, however, this learning design utilizes questionnaires and tests, not particularly suitable for subjects that emphasize judgement, interpretation, or creativity. In addition, team effectiveness requires some degree of interpersonal competence. Other limitations are that the paperwork can be extensive, and the students learning skills must be homogeneous. There may also be some resistance to this unfamiliar way of learning (Mouton and Blake, 7).

#### Skills:

Present approaches consist of *behavior modification*, the reinforcement of desired responses, and *coaching*, which may consist of tutoring, one-to-one, or on the job training. Synergogy uses a Performance Judging Design to help learners acquire and perfect skills in colleague teams that develop criteria for performance, and use these criteria to critique one another's skills- again in the absence of an authority or expert.

Therefore the group avoids using the "teacher's criteria", while each individual knows exactly what the criteria are. This can be an effective tool for skill development if the trainees can learn to use criteria for perfecting their performance of a skill. Other benefits include: opportunity for comparison, more rapid learning, and teamwork, which may reduce the possible loss of self-esteem. Negative factors include: the potential differences in rate of progress, time limitations and the fact that some learners may be threatened by the critiques of their colleagues (Mouton and Blake, 7-8).

### Attitudes

Certain attitudes affect student or employee performance, satisfaction, and development. Aiding individuals to become aware of their attitudes and to bring them under control can be very valuable to the trainer. Most administrators, companies, and organizations, however, fail to consider attitudes at all. They are only concerned when there is a problem or when the quality of employee attitudes becomes negative, resulting in deviant or divisive behavior. Other attitudes are considered personal matters, of little concern. Synergogy provides the Clarifying Attitudes Design (CAD), used to enable learners to study and articulate their own attitudes. It is well known that positive attitudes can strongly motivate an individual. This is the goal of the CAD, identifying and using attitudes, not fighting or ignoring them.

An advantage of the CAD is that it allows the participants to clarify their own attitudes, and to consider what they want to change and how this will affect their corresponding behavior. This change is promoted in a positive way from within, rather than through propaganda or authoritarian means. Additionally, the results of this procedure are carried back to the workplace as the trainees have learned about the attitudes of others as well as themselves. Thus, it provides a structure and motivation to pursue a natural curiosity and appreciation concerning others' attitudes. It gives the trainees a vehicle to carefully consider new options and possibilities through exposure to others' feelings, attitudes and beliefs.

The negative aspects of this design are that only certain attitudes may be considered or studied, namely those of a public character. In addition, some people may have very strong attitudes, impervious to review, comparison or alteration. Another set of attitudes may not be readily subject to significant development by this method (Mouton and Blake, 8-9).

## SYNERGOGY IN USE TODAY

There are certainly many different attitudes toward learning in today's world. Among supervisors and trainees, there is seldom universal consensus. Learners are not always involved or active in the learning process. They may not be committed to it. Some trainers and educators accept this as a fact of life, while others think that it can be overcome. These educators believe that learning can be exciting and rewarding. They believe that excitement and the potential rewards to be the essential motivators essential for real learning to occur.

Learner-centered education promises greater involvement, participation and commitment, but must be coordinated in order to achieve the standards of excellence and learning outcomes necessary. According to Mouton and Blake, "...synergogy provides a structure for learner-centered education that enables learners to exercise responsibility and initiative in a setting that both supports and guides their autonomy (160)".

Synergogic designs have been used in this country in industrial and university arenas. Although studies have not been formalized, in interviews, the educators who have used these designs have indicated good acceptance by learners. The interviews focused on the three basic elements of synergogic methods-learning designs and instruments, teamwork, and synergy in learning. A summary of the results from an interview with a senior trainer in a large industrial organization is included below (Mouton and Blake, 160-176).

Findings showed that the Team Effectiveness Design (TED) met with universal favor, while the Clarifying Attitudes Design (CAD) was the first design to be accepted although it encountered some initial suspicion. This design worked best in conjunction with some knowledge or skill design. Most importantly, the trainers found that it was most effective to use a combinations of designs when establishing criteria for effective objective writing.

The TED was found to be useful when working with issues that resulted in opposing views, especially in the marketing area. In fact, all designs worked best in specific situations. The time for completion of the TED proved longer than the lecture process, but



having the learners do some prework before the course is very effective. Results showed that when a higher understanding of objectives was necessary, the TED resulted in a better quality of learning than the lecture. For testing and validity, a soundly written instructional document and multiple choice test was a must.

The Team-Member Teaching Design (TMTD) was found to be useful when a working knowledge of a subject was necessary. It enabled the learners to make judgements, and resulted in a rewriting of difficult manuals into clear, concise, instructional documents. The TMTD appears to work well when the learners need to learn rules, such as safety, legislation, personnel practices, marketing, stock control. Testing is done by true-false exercises identifying major learning points. The disadvantages of students teaching one another did not seem to be critical here. The TMTD was a powerful motivator for preparation and learners were "pushed" by their responsibility for their colleagues.

The Performance Judging Design (PJD) was best applied to skills, such as letter and report writing. There was little resistance to this design. The breakthrough occurred in 1981, when criteria for design became the subject matter for a variety of settings including food service, enabling trainees to develop a design and compare it against the already established criteria.

The trainer summarized by saying that:

I think of synergogy as a range of student-centered, training-centered strategies with enormous potential. Go into almost any training center anywhere and into any workshop in our company, and even if a basic design isn't being conducted you will find some sort of synergogic influence- better texts, better tests, more participation, that sort of thing.[Mouton and Blake, 166]

## IMPLICATIONS OF SYNERGOGY

The importance of synergogy for the future of education can be looked at from several positive viewpoints, according to Mouton and Blake. There is the prospect that synergogy can accelerate the rate at which true learning occurs. And the contribution that team-based

learning offers an individual in acquiring social interaction skills is extremely important to individuals and to their organizations. After all, one goal of education is to help individuals learn to work together in finding the best solutions to problems facing us on a daily basis (176).

There are also implications for managerial competence and organizational efficiency. According to Mouton and Blake, individuals learn teamwork, which results in more effective participation and an easier time for management. A side benefit is that individuals, by working together, realize that the quality of contributions is not necessarily related to rank. This will result in greater self-confidence, improved problem solving abilities, and better decision making capabilities (176 ).

The implication for the future of education concerns administration and professional arrangements. The answer to our problems in education may not be smaller classes, better pay, more audiovisual and computer techniques. Synergogy posits a reorientation of the concept of teacher and classroom. Fewer experts will be needed. Education will use learning instruments and designs implemented by learning administrators, less specialized than teachers, who will also accomplish the orientation and supervision. Less money will be necessary as the teacher-student ratio is reduced by team learning (176-177).

Thus, Synergogy will retain the unique advantages of pedagogy and androgogy, while avoiding their weaknesses. Recent evidence points out two fundamental shifts in American culture. These are a return to fundamental concepts of competence and the movement toward excellence through effective participation.

Mouton and Blake sum it up:

Synergogy permits fundamentals to be the object of learning through means that stimulate the learner's involvement and commitment in strengthening their competencies. Beyond the acquisition of knowledge, synergogy provides a means for studying and rectifying many real-life problems related to attitudes as well as for acquiring skills requisite to the effective application of competencies in all aspects of an individual's life. (Mouton and Blake, 177)

## SUMMARY OF VIEWPOINTS AND CONCLUSIONS FOR TRAINING

The research shows that there are many theories of education and training. The primary theory in use today is pedagogy, or the process of teaching by traditional methods. However, strong cases are being made for two other methods of educating adults: androgogy and synergogy.

It appears that pedagogy is best suited for the young. This type of learner is often inexperienced, has little knowledge of what must be learned, and needs a good deal of direction. For the present, at least, pedagogy seems to be the best method of training for these types of learners.

A warning must be sounded, however, to those professionals working in this realm of education. The pedagogical model, which assumes students will submissively carry out the teacher's direction, and will become ready to absorb and hence to learn when told to, should be carefully reviewed. These assumptions may have worked in the past when immigrants and their children were highly motivated and interested in education; today's children are different. Perhaps, part of the failure of today's educational system can be attributed to the naive assumption that children will do as they are told. In the words of Professor Francine Herman of Cornell University: "Like the adult learner, the young also must need and want to learn before we can hope to keep their attention, or hope to have them learn anything, even if they are captive in the classroom(1985)".

Adult education is certainly a different kind of challenge. Proponents of both androgogy and synergogy agree that adults must be involved in their own education. There is disagreement, however, on the methods. Androgogy, as a practice, involves the adult learner in the development of training, while synergogy involves the learner in the actual training process. The two most important results of these studies are: (1) the need to involve the learner in the training program, and (2) the need to provide an acceptable physical and

psychological climate for learning.

Recent studies and examples indicate that both androgogy and synergogy can work in the business and academic world. On a universal basis the use of the androgogical theory appears to be more practical. There are certainly many benefits of the synergogical precepts, but the implications, as described by Mouton and Blake, do not seem realistic for widespread use. To replace teachers and authority figures with learning administrators may be a difficult task. It is reasonable to expect learners to be proactive participants in their education, but when the student is asked to be fully responsible, a great deal of fear, anxiety, and ultimately failure may result. Studies of our society have proven that there must be some semblance of authority in all group activities. The learning administrator will not provide this. It is also possible that instead of a reduced teacher-student ratio, the pool of students may be sufficiently enlarged so that the cost will actually be increased. And administrators will be expected to upgrade their knowledge constantly as the technology improves, thus eliminating the cost savings of hiring administrators instead of teachers.

It would be wrong to say that there is no place for the synergogic theory. There are many excellent features of this practice which can be applied to education and training. The main benefit of this design is getting the students to take some responsibility for their education or training. In small businesses, this concept can be a very rewarding experience in an operation which is flexible enough in time, workload, and personnel to permit such training methods to be used.

In organizations such as the U.S. Air Force, large corporations, government, and other bureaucratic structures, however, synergogic methods are probably impractical. since there is usually little room for the flexibility required. Additionally, authority figures are facts of organizational life. These types of organizations can learn from these models, though, and make at least some adjustments in their current training philosophies.

The androgogical mode should best provide the guidance for a new style of education

and training. This style must involve learners in the planning and evaluation of training. The organization must treat and accept the learners as adults- not as children. There must be a climate of respect, understanding, and appreciation. When this is accomplished, the training and development program stands a good chance of producing a happier, more efficient workforce, and the probability of a more productive society.

## CHAPTER TWO

### CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT

The military lodging program is the largest provider of hospitality services in the world. Although there are a good many considerations common to the commercial industry, the special characteristics of the military (U.S. Air Force) program create unique considerations in training its civilian and military personnel. This chapter will discuss those differences. In addition, the concept of adult learning certainly has an important place in any discussion of training in the hospitality industry. This concept will provide a main theme throughout the discussion.

#### SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF MILITARY OPERATIONS

The U.S. Air Force builds and operates military lodging facilities on installations around the world. Unlike commercial hotels and motels, these facilities are not run for a profit; instead, their purpose is to provide assured and comfortable lodging for traveling personnel performing temporary duty. Little can be left to chance when an individual goes to an assignment. These on-base facilities are arranged to provide appropriate lodging in suitable locations for all ranks, keeping personnel together and close to their work stations. This facilitates working together on group projects, studies, and other activities.

Like any other military operation, the front desk of a military lodging facility has a mission. And like hospitality operations, that mission revolves around service and guest satisfaction. When an individual travels a great distance from home and arrives at a base (military installation), the first impression is usually struck at the billeting desk. The appearance of the desk and the initial service experience give the visitor an instant image of the operation and something with which to quickly judge the competence of management. Courteousness and efficiency are the prime behaviors desired. However, an additional factor is thrown in here, which is not common to the commercial industry. Visitors to military

installations, as well as desk clerks, wear a symbol of rank (but not always visibly). This is a symbol of authority, respect, and importance. That desk clerk must treat all persons with utmost respect, but must be on guard for those that expect (and often deserve) special treatment. Therefore, additional stress is placed on these clerks, especially when the clerk is a lower ranking individual working in uniform. Under these circumstances it is often difficult to tell a customer something he doesn't want to hear.

In order to achieve recognition, personnel know they must perform efficiently and with courtesy, since they know they are always being evaluated. Initial contact, then, can be very stressful; efficiency is measured daily. And although this is not a commercial operation, there is still a great deal of accountability: reports are filed, funds must be controlled, rooms must be used effectively, and requirements must be met. These are measured by occupancy reports, cashier reports, audits, and the general ability to meet mission requirements. No one wants to hear that there is no "room at the inn", although the occupancy rate averages only 65%.

### Turnover

A major problem in maintaining consistency is turnover of personnel. Individual desk clerks in a military operation are usually a mixed group with differing individual needs. The clerk may be a young enlisted person on his/her first "assignment". Such a clerk is enrolled in "on the job training"(OJT) at all times. Other clerks may be non-commissioned officers with many years service, either experienced in billeting or cross training from another field. They too are in some kind of constant training. Other clerks are civilians, civil servants or direct hires, with or without experience. These people may have long term training needs or they may be looking for another job. Although these people may have different needs, they all have one thing in common. They want to do a good job for the Air Force and earn some recognition: for the military member it means promotion; for the civilian it may mean pay

bonuses, raises and ultimately promotion.

Another factor to be considered here is the selection process. Unlike a commercial hotel, the billeting facility does not often go through a typical selection process when choosing desk personnel. Sometimes there is no choice at all! Those military personnel assigned to a unit will have to do. When a civilian position is open, there may be a preferred list of personnel that must be used for selection. Or a reduction-in-force(RIF) may force the operation to lose an experienced worker and gain a new one with no experience. These factors make training essential in a billeting operation.

Similar problems exist in the commercial industry. Union rules, a lack of experienced workers, the shrinking job pool, and competition all work together to create a tremendous turnover problem. It is clear that one of the partial solutions to this problem is an effective training program. It is the key to both assuring that workers know their jobs, and keeping workers by reducing the stress on the job..

### Training as a Possible Solution

Turnover of personnel is a problem common to all hospitality operations. It can be reduced, however, by an aggressive and appropriate training program. It is a fact that some workers in the military are lost by RIF's and others through frequent reassignment of personnel, as noted earlier. This is also true in the civilian sector due to other reasons. But we should be able to cut down on the voluntary turnover, those people who cross-train to another field or actively pursue another job. Although the salary and benefits of these desk positions are low, people should respond better and be more content when they are better able to handle the work situation. This climate can be enhanced by a good training and development program.

The supervisor must consider that these individuals are adults, not supermen.



Consequently, a group of facts, guidelines, and procedures cannot be simply thrust on the individual, with the expectation that it will be retained. These adults come into a job, for the most part, wanting to learn and to do a good job. There are certain things that must be learned, and others that must be unlearned. These can be presented differently, depending on the situation. Some examples of techniques are: discussion groups, hands on practice with forms and equipment, role play, etc. These must be geared to the individual and the operation.

Experienced workers can be used as resources for these purposes if the number of trainees are small. It should reinforce good habits. In any case, training should not be rushed or done without proper supervision and/or coaching. This invites disaster.

The worker who is new to the front desk operation will get on-the-job training (OJT). This may consist of observing for a week before performing on the job. The next step is usually working at the desk with the help of one of the experienced personnel. But this can be difficult at times of stress, such as a large group arrival. The manager must be careful to remember that the trainee is not capable of doing all tasks smoothly, and must plan the manning of the desk appropriately. It is also possible that the individual assigned to train this new person is working on a different shift. OJT may be an effective means of training, but it must offer a controlled means of training, instead of the conventional "sink or swim!" Without proper preparation and control, the learning process will be incomplete. How long will someone thrown in like this enjoy his/her work? How long before they actively seek alternative employment?

It may be argued that a shortage of manpower forces the organization to install this worker earlier than is ideal. This may be true, and often it is the case. It must also be considered, however, that these people are a valuable resource. Unless trained to do the job properly, the results may be detrimental to the entire organization. Training must always be well thought out and properly controlled.

The problem of retention will always be around. Perhaps a careful look at how we train the people in these low paying, low status, high pressure jobs just might help them enjoy the jobs enough to stay a little longer.

### Changes in Technology

The world marches on. Automation is taking over many functions in our society. This is the case in the Air Force, as well. Several facilities already are equipped with the new Services Information Management System (SIMS). This computer based system will change the way we work and bodes well to produce greater productivity and cost savings. This is not always the case, however, especially in the infancy of a project.

Front desk jobs, for the most part, are unskilled positions. In fact the greatest skill a desk clerk can have is good communication. SIMS, in the Air Force, and automation in the commercial world, have already resulted in great changes, for the clerk must now be "technically" skilled! This involves learning how to use a computer system in order to accomplish work tasks.

One common problem of the new technology is the fear and awe of computers. Adults are said to carry around "adult baggage". This refers to their experiences, prejudices, fears, etc. Many people have trouble dealing with such "intelligent" machines. Others feel insecure as they trade in their familiar tools for a computer. Old habits must be discarded, and new ones learned. In the transition, we may experience lowered productivity and inefficiency. This is often the case in the early stages of implementation, until the workers become familiar and comfortable with the computer. Advance preparation and practice are the keys to a smoother transition. By having training and information sessions in advance, this technological breakthrough can be made extremely effective. The problems that can result from automation are numerous. For example, people may slow down, sabotage the equipment, lose important information, or just refuse to use the new equipment. These

problems must be avoided. A multi-billion dollar investment must be protected. Preparing and continually training the people who handle these computers on a daily basis is the best protection we can buy.

## CONSIDERATIONS FOR TRAINING PROGRAMS

Large variations exist in the importance of training among companies and governmental agencies. For example, the U.S. Air Force has a highly developed training mechanism operating through the Air Training Command. Some businesses have one-person training units, while others may have more than 100 professional staff people. There are also variations in the chain of command and other organizational alignment.

The organization of a training function, and the importance attached to it will determine the extent of training accomplished. The considerations for training, including barriers, needs, costs, and benefits, are certainly factors to take into account. According to Wexley and Latham:

Some organizations have had training programs for years and are convinced of the benefits to the organization of developing and training their people...Specifically, the attitudes of the chief executive officer and the executives in charge of the various divisions or locations are the main source of company training philosophy. Quite often, their attitudes toward training depend upon their own unique past experiences with company-sponsored training programs. Also important are their perceptions of the labor market, that is, are there people in the market who have the necessary skills and experiences, or must unskilled people be hired and trained? A third factor that influences their attitude toward training is their philosophy of promoting from within versus hiring from the outside." (14)

It is these attitudes, built up by experiences, that the training director must nurture, or try to change. Based on such experiences, the major considerations for training in the hospitality industry, adapted from Lewis Forrest, are discussed below.

### Barriers

When considering any training program, many myths about training must be addressed. The following has been adapted from Forrest's Training in the Hospitality

Industry (10-12):

*Training is simple.....* Training is not simple! It takes a lot of effort, planning, coordination, and skill. To begin training in a haphazard manner only invites failure.

*Most of our people are experienced- they don't need training.....* Experienced workers often need training just as much as inexperienced workers! Standards and procedures must be uniform for all workers in an organization. Each new manager and law (or regulation) will bring some changes. Not all past experience is good experience. How many of your workers can be considered good role models?

*There isn't enough time for training.....* We have to make time! Managers always fall back on the excuse that there isn't "enough time." Our time is valuable and we've got a lot to do, but we must make the time for important matters. If we don't take the time to train, we will have to take the time later to correct and explain the mistakes. Which time is better spent? This also means that we have to let our personnel train during working hours or pay them to train during off hours.

*Training is a waste of time.....* It's not a waste of time. Better service results in more effective accomplishment of the mission.

There is an additional problem in military facilities. Commercial enterprises, have(or should have) personnel functions at each property committed specifically to that hotel. In the military, each base has a Central Civilian Personnel Office (CCPO) which serves the entire base. Therefore, the housing manager supervises only one of several activities and often must compete for service and training funds. The housing manager does not have any trained personnel experts on staff. Therefore, there is a tendency to let the CCPO handle all civilian personnel training. This can be dangerous. The military barrier to training may be in the attitude of:

*Let the personnel office do it-that's their job! .....* But we can't depend on the Civilian Personnel Office to do it! They have limited funds, and time. We are the experts in our business and must pass on our expertise. CCPO will help with human relations and should be of

assistance in our program, but we must do it ourselves!

Of course, there are other barriers to training and many other related problems, such as the bad image it has, the lack of support, the actual time constraints and the lax attitude toward the need for training. But even if training is attempted, a lack of commitment, know-how, and resources can hurt. Employee resistance may be a problem, and disorganization can kill the program. The solutions to these problems are motivation, preparation and good hard work. In the end, we cannot afford not to train our workers.

### Training Needs and Costs

A second important consideration is the question of training needs and costs. Managers should develop methods of analyzing the needs for training and establishing their priorities. Changing equipment or operating practices, and modifying standards, are examples of needs that can be dealt with through training. There are also many symptoms to look for which will indicate other training needs. The subject of identifying training needs will be further developed in the next chapter.

Once the training needs are identified, there is the question of costs. Although many resources may be available, there are still hidden costs, e.g. personnel, equipment, material, and possibly facility costs. A cost benefit analysis could help in uncovering a lot of the hidden costs. This is simply a model to help measure the true cost of training (see table 1). Benefits will be very difficult to measure monetarily, but then we have to consider whether our goals are monetary as is the case in commercial enterprise, or good will and mission completion, which are the primary goals for military operations. Of course, cost savings will help justify almost any expense.

Personnel costs may include: the time of the trainer in preparing and operating the program; the time of the personnel away from the job; the decreased efficiency of a trainer who is performing OJT, program costs (development, writing, travel, etc.); consulting and

assistance by the personnel office . These costs may not be critical, but any overtime paid is a visible expense and must be justified.

Equipment costs may include: training devices (computer programs, video cassettes, movies), telecommunications. While some equipment may be available at the training center or audio-visual department, we may have to go elsewhere for professional training programs or devices.

Materials may include: texts, workbooks, exercises, slides, tapes, paper, etc. Although these may be readily available, do we consider the cost, as in the case of the Air Force, to the government?

Facilities expense is probably uncommon, but may occur if outside facilities must be used, or if another function is displaced.

Not all of these expenses are valid or appropriate for all training programs. And don't let the costs scare you. They may actually be minimal, depending on the extent of the program. For example, how much does OJT cost? Many factors are not direct costs of the program. That is, these costs are paid out anyway, so there will not be a direct additional expense to your organization. Following an outline of possible expenses will help determine what the program will actually cost. If a budget proposal is needed, this information will certainly help establish that budget and sell the program. A well thought out and justified program usually has a better future than a hastily conceived one.

### Benefits of Training

There are many obvious benefits of training employees and these must be elaborated on and presented to anyone who is involved in the approval process. In the Air Force, here is what is at stake:

- The reputation of the base, command and squadron. A courteous and efficient desk clerk projects a well run, competent organization. It shows how sharp your outfit is and sets the

tone for the entire visit of a traveler.

- Guest Satisfaction. This is what we're all about. That's why we're called base "Services". Improved training often means improved satisfaction.
- Efficiency in operating the billeting complex. We can make better use of our rooms, and make sure they're occupied as often as possible. Maximum utilization of facilities is an important objective of any government facility.
- Reduction of Stress and Absenteeism. An employee who knows his job will be happier with it. Without confusion and indecision, work becomes more pleasant and enjoyable. In a stressful job, such as ours, any reduction of stress will certainly be welcome.
- Cost savings. Better use of facilities means more income. Better cash control means less loss. Higher efficiency results in better projections and cost analyses. All of these may be realized if proper training takes place.
- Job enhancement. For individual workers, benefits could be monetary or mean good performance appraisals resulting in promotion. Improved relationships should result when everyone knows his/her job and pitches in.
- Greater professionalism. This is an important factor in the training process, since both individuals and the unit start to prosper.
- Mission accomplished. Not only is our mission improved, but better care of our customers helps keep them in a better mood, ultimately improving their performance. This is the crux of our business and a major goal of our training program.

#### A Final Word on Costs versus Benefits

As of 1979, nearly \$100 billion dollars was spent annually on training by industrial and governmental organizations (Lien, 1979). It is surprising that many companies do not know what benefits they receive from the expenditures on training and development. This cost/benefit determination is extremely important, for without it, training budgets are likely to be cut across the board. After all, the firm usually wants to get the most results for the least

cost. If it cannot be determined what the results are, where is the incentive to provide for the costs? Kearsley lists three terms that describe how well the costs and results can be balanced: efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity (2)

The definition of a cost/benefit analysis provided by Kearsley is "A technique for assessing the relationship between results or outcomes, and the cost required to produce them (2). There are many specific reasons to do a cost/benefit analysis. It may provide justification for existing programs; help to evaluate the feasibility of a proposed program, or serve as a basis to compare two or more alternatives. Other major reasons include: determining the cost effectiveness of a program; developing a program in-house or buying one; hiring a consultant or adding a staff member? Cost considerations and possible benefits may be viewed in the form of a table (table 1) to show the true value of a cost/benefit analysis.

The cost/benefit analysis usually cannot be done quickly, or easily. There are several steps to consider. The most critical part of the analysis is the model being used. There are several models available, depending on the specific problem, or one can be devised.

The cost analysis itself may take several forms. But the questions to be answered by these models are: (1) What proportion of the budget should be spent on each program? (2) How can training costs be reduced? (3) How much savings (lesser costs) will the new approach provide over an old approach? (Huber)

One model is the Resource Requirements Model (exhibit 1,2). This model compares efficiency vs. effect. Companies may use it to compare two or more training methods at a given time.



TABLE 1

COST CONSIDERATIONS

## Cost Factors

- Potential costs-per worker
- Total Population to be trained
- Release of workers for training
- Optimum trainee-instructor ratio
- Wages, facilities, incidentals
- Program development and support
- Administrative and General

## Cost Effectiveness

- Outside program or develop one
- Hire consultant or add staff
- Reduction in learning with additional trainees

## Schedule Effect

- Time for rental or room space use
- Staff time setting up program

BENEFITS

## Direct

- Safety
- Potential savings-per worker
- Improved quality
- Improved output
- Improved efficiency
- Operating improvements traceable to supervisory training

## Indirect

- Less absenteeism
- Less turnover
- Less breakage, loss, waste
- Safety

Adapted from: Vandra Huber, ILR 693, Design and Administration of Training Programs, Cornell University, Summer Session, 1985

The Life Cycle Model(exhibit 3) focuses on evaluation of training for efficiency. It assesses the cost of training approaches over the life cycle. The key area is the transition phase when new training programs are developed. During this stage the effectiveness and costs of training both drop and add up again as costs of old and new programs overlap. the company must develop means to minimize costs during this period.

The Benefit Analysis answers questions of its own. Its goals are: to try to show causal links between training systems attributes, outcomes, organizational goals and outcomes; and to determine effectiveness and productivity. This analysis is more complex than a cost analysis due to the indirect nature of many benefits (i.e. safety) and the mathematical modeling. Productivity models will measure: cost efficiency; cost effectiveness; and the relationship between training outcomes and costs. They also determine when to switch from one training program to another.

Several major types of cost/benefit analysis models are introduced here. Each applies to a different problem. the attached decision diagram (exhibit 4) may help decide which way to go. Or the organization may establish its own model based on individual needs.

Whether these models are used or not, the main point is that costs and benefits are integral considerations in developing a training program. Without considering these factors, one program, or the entire training concept in an organization, may be seriously jeopardized.

## PLANNING A TRAINING PROGRAM

Training is a process. Therefore, in planning a training program several sequential steps should be considered including planning, implementation and evaluation. In it's simplest form planning for training involves determining what is to be done and how to do it. Training should not be done just because the boss thinks it's a good idea or because we suddenly feel it is necessary. There are many clues which can be used to determine if

training is needed. We must determine specifically what will be trained, who needs it, and how it will be done. Some situations have already been mentioned as indications of training needs(i.e. onset of SIMS). More specific ideas, as well as methods will be addressed in this section.

The most important step before beginning training is the "needs assessment." This will point out if training is needed, where it is needed and who should be trained. The assessment can be as long or as brief as the organization wants, but must cover three basic areas: (1)Organization Analysis, (2) Task Analysis, and (3) Individual or Person Analysis. In each area, there are steps to be taken, and symptoms to look for.

### Organization Analysis

This is a review of the workplace and the organization as it is affected by internal and external factors. The primary purpose of the organization analysis is to determine where in the organization training activities should be conducted. Specific things to look for in the military operation (many of these apply anywhere) are:

- Will the boss support a training program?
- Will the budget crunch restrict any overtime?
- Is there sufficient manning to allow training sessions on duty time?
- Have new employees been hired or projected in?
- Have new operating instructions been written?
- Are new procedures going into effect?
- Has the regulation been revised?
- Has the new billeting officer changed many of the policies?
- Is a new cash register being installed?
- Is SIMS coming?
- Is there an expansion of facilities and mission?
- Is the personnel turnover rate relatively high?
- Have new employees been hired or projected in?
- Is there a lot of absenteeism?
- Have there been a lot of grievances or disciplinary actions?
- Is the morale low?
- Is the occupancy rate below current AF standards?
- Have guest evaluations been highly negative?
- Are there a lot of guest complaints about the desk personnel?
- Is the accounts receivable balance too high?
- Are cashier reports to NAFFMB inaccurate?
- Do the financial analyses from the NAFFMO show problems?

The final part of an organizational analysis is an organizational diagnosis. This is a study to determine how the employees perceive aspects of the work environment. If there are a lot of negative perceptions and ill feelings, then some kind of training is usually indicated.

After the analysis is complete, the problems that were identified should be considered and the question, "can we solve these problems with training?" must be answered. If it is affirmative, then the next step of the needs assessment should be considered and completed.

### The Job or Task Analysis

This is a very important part of the "needs assessment" process. Some consider it most crucial since it entails identifying the specific tasks of the job. This centers on the job description, a very important document which is often composed hastily, or without proper care. In simple terms it is the official record of what the employee does, and how it should be done. But there is much more to it. The task list forms the basis for training since it clearly indicates the standards of expected performance. Finally, if managers and employees know what and how work is to be done, the extent to which actual performance compares to expected performance becomes the basis of evaluation. The completed task breakdowns become, in effect, an operations manual which helps resolve problems, serves as a training tool, and clarifies relationships and differences between various jobs. Managers must decide the degree of detail necessary. In short, the purposes of the job analysis are:

1. to establish personnel specifications
2. to establish wage structure
3. to improve efficiency
4. to derive training content
5. to establish standards

There are several methods of determining a proper job description. One is to write down what has to be done, in specifics. Another is to observe employees on the job, jotting down what they do and how often. This is called *time sampling*. A third method involves

the development of a *job inventory* (exhibit 5). Several personnel generate an exhaustive list of job tasks necessary to perform the job adequately. This job inventory is then given to each of the clerks and is completed indicating time spent on each task and evaluating the importance of each task. The result is a comprehensive picture of the job's tasks as seen by many knowledgeable employees working on the job. This method is an excellent example of the use of an adult learning theory. By enabling the workers to participate in the process, they will feel more committed to the work, and more comfortable with the resulting job description. This may also head off later disputes about what is and isn't included in a particular job.

The job or position description consists of:

- (1) An identification, or job title. Although, in the military, the manager can put a title on, the Civilian Personnel Office usually attaches an official title based on the job description itself.

- (2) A job summary. Record in this section a brief summary of the essential occupational facts and distinguishing occupational characteristics of the work performed. Define the job, point out the basic factors which differentiate it from other jobs. Record what the worker does in terms of the physical and mental actions of the worker on the job. Record how the work is done in terms of the methods used to perform the job. Methods include use of machinery, such as calculator and cash register. Record why the worker performs the job in terms of the purpose of the job and its place in the organizational structure of the section. The job summary should be the last section completed because a better overall understanding of the job can be obtained after a review of the details.

- (3) Duties or functions may follow. This section is the task list. Record here a clear item-by-item account of the fundamental operations of a job as done by the employee (exhibits 6,7).

(4) The criteria for evaluation specify how the employee will be held accountable for the duties. They describe the physical demands made on the employee (such as standing for long periods of time). They also note the amount of responsibility and the employee's obligation to perform certain tasks related to the main job. By reading this section, a manager or employee should have a general idea about factors that will be used for evaluation.

(5) Reporting Relationship or Supervision. This section identifies the person to whom the employee reports (and may note whether the employee supervises other personnel).

(6) Qualifications. These include special training, job knowledge, experience, or other qualifications that an individual should possess in order to handle the job. They include minimum educational requirements, such as the ability to speak, read, write, perform mathematical work, give change, etc.

(7) Working Conditions. This section usually will not apply to desk clerks unless there are special conditions. Other jobs, however, should include some description. The format of job descriptions may change, but it is essential to include as much information as possible (exhibits 8,9). This will result in proper grading of jobs, and a clear understanding of what is to be expected. In addition, it will lay the groundwork for an effective training program.

### The Individual or Person Analysis

The third step of the needs assessment, person analysis, focuses on the individual employee. It deals with the question, "Who needs training and of what kind?" Step 1 of person analysis concerns how well a specific employee is performing his or her job. Usually the performance appraisal is used to measure an employee's proficiency. Other methods of

determining individual needs include: interview, the training needs questionnaire, needs-analysis rating method, observation and measurement of behavior, and achievement testing. After completing step 1 and determining a training need, step 2 involves determining the specific skills and knowledge that an employee needs to acquire in order to perform the job acceptably.

Since the goal of this analysis is to determine who needs training and who doesn't, it can be an important step. Training those who are already competent is a waste of time and money, and may result in negative results. In the Air Force billeting function, we are usually dealing with a small number of desk clerks. Therefore this step need not be elaborate. In all likelihood it can be completed quickly through a few simple techniques.

Performance appraisal is the most common determinant of training needs. Unfortunately, this method often suffers from "inflation". In other words, supervisors are usually hesitant to give anything less than a satisfactory rating, and are very reluctant to put a negative notation in an individuals file. Therefore other methods become more important.

The interview technique can be very valuable in this case. Sample questions may cover:

1. Problems encountered on the job
2. Improvements that could be made
3. The most liked and least liked aspects of the job
4. Accomplishments on the job
5. Relations with associates, subordinates, and supervisors
6. Personal goals and career goals
7. Felt needs for acquiring additional skills or knowledge

Information must be kept off the record and confidential in order to engender accurate and honest data. The employee's immediate supervisor should not conduct the interview.

The "training needs questionnaire" is a checklist of skills required to do the job effectively. The employees are asked to check those areas in which they believe they need training. A variation is the training needs checklist, which allows the employee to rate his/her strength in each task (exhibit 10). These can be effective in dealing with employees who have

weaknesses and will admit them. It is important to advise employees in advance that no action will be taken as a result of the information, and that the survey is only to help develop a training program.

Probably the most effective measure for desk clerks is simple observation. This can be accomplished by supervisors or other personnel, against a checklist of desired behaviors. This person need not be a direct supervisor, but must be familiar with the basic required behaviors. There are two scales to measure such behavior. Using the Behavioral Expectation Scale(BES), the supervisor can rate the employee on expected behaviors based on the job description(exhibit 11). The alternative is the Behavioral Observation Scale(BOS). Here the observer has a list of desired behaviors and rates the employee on the the number of times that employee is observed actually demonstrating the behavior(exhibit 12).

The bottom line in person anlysis is to assure that there is a training need before a person undergoes training. In the case of new policies and procedures, a new mission, new equipment, etc. there may not be a need for an extensive person analysis. But if behavior needs changing, or there have been complaints about rudeness and poor performance, then a person analysis may be necessary.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

A knowledge of training concepts and techniques is necessary in order to be an effective manager. In general, training is needed at all levels, but management support is essential for it to be planned and implemented. Managers must recognize the benefits to be gained from training and train when there is a need that can be effectively addressed through training activities. Training must be planned with specific, defined, and attainable goals. It must be cost-effective. It should not be used as a cover-up for some other problem. And in



accordance with the theme of this report, the concept of adult learning should be considered. Adults must be part of the training process, from design to evaluation. With this assistance comes cooperation and a better chance for success.

This chapter has considered training in large organizations, including the military. We have reviewed the factors which are important in determining whether training is needed, where it is needed, and who needs it. But, there is much more. Training methods vary tremendously in design, cost, and objectives. (See exhibit 13 for a sample training program). Corporate business personnel must be familiar with the latest training methods and their capabilities. The importance is obvious, and we should extend that training benefit to all of our employees.

On the military side, when an organization determines it needs training, the personnel department should be contacted for assistance in setting up a training program. Military personnel should be familiar with training, as it is conducted from the time one enters the service, all throughout a career. But, it must be considered that civilians have different needs and are covered by different regulations. Coordination with the civilian personnel office is mandatory.

When our managers realize how important training is, and work with the proper offices to establish and maintain training programs, the entire Air Force and its mission will benefit.

### CHAPTER 3 DEVELOPING TRAINING PROGRAMS PREPARING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Once an organization has established the need for training, the training program can be developed. The basis for this program must be the specific, desired behavioral objectives. These will guide the program so that it does not wander from the established needs.

This chapter is not about who should select learning objectives or how they should be selected. In fact, objectives are very personal to an organization and must be prepared in accordance with specific organizational goals. To try to explain how an organization should choose its goals would be impossible. Instead, the discussion will center around the importance of writing clear, sound, objectives and the elements that make them meaningful. This chapter should give all potential training managers the basic tools for developing good learning objectives.

Why do we need learning objectives? The drafting of objectives causes us to seriously think about what we need that is worth teaching, and what is worth the expense of time and effort to accomplish. Objectives provide a sound basis for the selection and design of instructional materials, content, and methods. *Instruction or training is most effective when the learners/trainees demonstrate that they can produce the desired behavior.* It is important, then, that learners know what is to be expected of them. Objectives provide students with the means of organizing their own efforts towards accomplishment of those objectives. Lastly, there must be a measurable evaluation of the training to ensure that the desired results have been reached. In order to accurately measure learning, the manager must know what criteria to apply, and how to measure them. This is where meaningful learning objectives become very valuable.

It is unfortunate that many managers, when preparing training programs, will simply pick their favorite training method and then write a program to go with it. Others will

determine training needs and begin writing "lessons." Such hit or miss methods are dangerous. If the manager has completed a needs analysis, there will certainly be concrete goals to work toward. After considering existing limitations, the trainer must develop the learning objectives. This process will determine specifically what is to be taught, and more importantly, what is to be learned. Care and patience at this step ultimately lead to the selection of materials, content, procedures, standards and evaluation procedures that stand a good chance of attaining the desired end.

What, then, is a meaningful objective? Mager writes that an objective is a "...description of a performance you want learners to be able to execute before you consider them competent. An objective describes an intended result of instruction, rather than the process of instruction itself." (p.3) It states an instructional outcome rather than an instructional process or procedure. In other words, the objective should state intended results, not the means of achieving these results.

There are many good reasons for developing objectives before training lessons are written. This process provides an invaluable guide for the entire process of training development. Some important factors include:

1. If trainees know what to expect, they will be more inclined to invest their energy. Providing clear objectives will facilitate this result.
2. Instructors can better control the learning stimuli, and respond to reactions of the learners.
3. Management knows what it will be getting for its expenditures.
4. The training and development staff can more honestly evaluate achievement of trainees and training.
5. Objectives establish accountability for learning.
6. Objectives establish an informal learning contract. Individuals are more receptive and committed to training.

7. Objectives provide criteria with which to select materials.
8. Objectives provide criteria against which content is outlined.
9. Objectives provide criteria against which standards are developed. (Huber, 1985)

### Qualities of Useful Objectives

One important result of establishing specific objectives is that the trainer/instructor knows where he or she is going with the training; he/she also knows what trainee behaviors will be expected. For all practical purposes, the objective states a behavior, the conditions under which the behavior will take place and the measurement for evaluating this behavior. These will be useful if they "succeed in communicating an intended instructional result to the learner, and convey to others a picture of what a successful learner will be able to do." (Mager, 19)

There are three key considerations to use when writing an objective; if used properly, they will clearly communicate intent. As described by Mager, these are *Performance, Conditions, and Criterion*. (20-87) Performance means specifying what the learner should be able to do. This may be filling out a form or knowing the steps in registering a customer into a hotel. The main intent must always be stated. If the performance is covert, then an indicator behavior must be added; it should be simple and direct.

Conditions means that the objective should state the conditions under which the performance will occur. This may mean climate, location, or simply test conditions. For example, in a freezer with temperatures below zero degrees..., or, given a list of factors, identify.....

The third consideration is Criterion. This describes how well the task must be performed. Criterion could specify speed (time limit), accuracy, or quality. Examples include: Within 10 minutes, perform this task; complete the calculations with at least 98% accuracy; prepare 10 widgets with no more than 1 returned for problems.

These three considerations will provide excellent guidance in the preparation of training objectives. But nothing is foolproof. Great care must be taken in writing these objectives, for there are many traps. According to Cicero, in developing objectives, the two most frequent errors are (1) focusing on what the instructor should do and (2) making objectives too complex by combining several behaviors into as single objective. (12.5-12.7)

Additional problems are found in the actual language used in writing the objectives. For example, using language such as, *to know, to understand, to appreciate, or to believe*, lends itself to many different interpretations and may be hard to measure. That is because these behaviors are actually abstract. How can we measure if someone knows or appreciates something? There must be a specific task (indicator) assigned to any objective to make it measurable. Better choices of concrete language which lead to fewer interpretations include: *to write, to recite, to sort and to compare*. Additional pitfalls include using jibberish (fancy language which clouds the issue) and false criteria, such as "must pass an exam" or must complete to the "satisfaction of the instructor." Mager provides a checklist for drafting objectives (table 2) that may act as a guide for the training manager (118).

To further look at the concept of learning objectives, we can break them down into three basic types. These may include (1) simple task- oriented objectives, (2) appreciation and value objectives, and (3) organization and characterization objectives (Bloom).

The first type of objective is the most common. It provides the basis for all good, measurable objectives. We usually find these types of behavioral objectives in unskilled, skilled, and a few managerial jobs.

Examples of the wording in these types of objectives include: name, recite, quote, explain, calculate, solve, and write. These verbs are concrete, action oriented, and lend themselves to few interpretations. There is little question as to what is expected.

TABLE 2

## Drafting Objectives Checklist

To help your objectives communicate, make sure that they answer the following questions in the affirmative:

1. Is your main intent stated?
2. If the main intent is covert, is an indicator behavior stated?
3. Is that indicator behavior the simplest and most direct one you can think of?
4. Have you described what the learner will have, or be deprived of, when demonstrating achievement of the objective?
5. Have you considered how well the learner must perform to be considered acceptable?

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An instructional objective:

Is a statement describing an intended outcome.

Describes intended outcome in terms of student performance.

Describes intended student performance at the time your influence over them ends (at the end of your instruction).

*Describes student performance rather than teacher performance or instructional procedure. (Mager, 118)*

Appreciation and value objectives are harder to write and measure. These involve responding, receiving and maintaining values. Examples of such objectives would include such verbs as: develops tolerance of, listens to, remembers, keeps still, and participates. These will produce learning objectives that are not easily measured. In fact, a specific indicator will be needed in the objective to assure their measurement.

The last area is the most difficult to teach, write or evaluate. This type of objective

involves behavior such as organizing values and characteristics. Examples may include: forming , or revising judgements, controlling aggression, and developing plans. The only way to accurately measure these behaviors is probably by long term observation.

When writing learning objectives for a training program, the manager must try to keep performance goals on the lowest level, specific task oriented behaviors. By moving to other higher levels, there is a strong danger that the objectives will become abstract, and difficult to understand or measure.

A final word on establishing good training objectives comes from Lewis Forrest's Training in the Hospitality Industry,

- Distinguish between general and performance based objectives
- List behaviors employee must learn to perform adequately
- Identify evaluation factors for each performance
- List realistic performance goals in measurable terms
- State the objectives clearly
- Use them and provide them to trainers and trainees (169-173).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

#### SELECTING THE METHOD

The next step in the development of training programs is choosing the training techniques and methods. This is not as easy as it seems. There are many training programs to be found, many more that can be written, and a plethora of techniques. In addition, there are a great many theories which will help determine what methods to choose. This section will present an overview of several training methods, criteria for choosing a method, including the implications for adult learners of methods used.

Before looking for a training program, the training manager must consider the special characteristics of adult learning. According to Huber, the trainer must take into account these basic considerations:

- Attitudes and interests of the learners (in program design)
- The time of the program (perception of utility)
- Minimizing time pressures (providing extra practice time)
- The opportunity for the learner to actively participate
- Extra reinforcement/feedback (Huber, 1985)

There are other things to consider when planning a training program for adults.

Adults enter training with many preconceived ideas and thus strong structure is necessary; in addition, some adult learners find change may be difficult and painful. Self-paced instruction and programmed learning are often the best bets for adults. Adults also personalize errors; they are slower, though more accurate, with psychomotor tasks. Therefore, the trainer must be aware of these characteristics when planning and conducting training programs.

Adults are also more active learners. They like to contribute. Soliciting and integrating their input can be a valuable source of material for any program. Their life experience must be tapped. On the other side of the coin, if the new information conflicts with the present



adult learner's knowledge, it usually takes longer for it to be accepted he trainer can use the adult learner's strengths and weaknesses in developing a program. These considerations must be integrated into the the planning process. When designing a training program, however, it is important to know your "audience" and consider the unique characteristics of that audience. The following section will examine several procedures and considerations to examine in planning a training program.

### SELECTION OF GOALS AND STRATEGIES

Once the target group has been selected, there are many considerations in choosing appropriate training techniques. Like most elements of training design, there is no single "right" way to do it nor is there is a single, simple answer. Even prepackaged training programs must be modified, depending on the organization's goals. Huber breaks these considerations into four types:

<u>Constraints</u>	<u>Objectives</u>	<u>Learning Principles</u>	<u>Purposes</u>
size of group	type	practice	observation
size of organization	skill, knowledge, abilities	participation	reaction time
location	availability of expertise	reinforcement	group interaction
time	level of trainees	feedback	
costs			

A similar breakdown was presented by Newstrom. He broke down the selection of training methods into the use of two types of variables, critical independent variables and other variables, which are not explicitly included in his model. These include:

#### Critical Independent Variables:

- Nature of the training objectives
- Cost of developing and administering the program
- Amount of trainee time required

Optimum size of class that can be handled

Extent to which principles of learning are inherent to the  
method (or can be readily incorporated)

Other Variables:

Level of trainees within the organizational hierarchy

Trainees' educational and cultural background

Training resources available

Qualifications of trainer (12-14)

Newstrom has integrated these variables into a contingency model (table 3), which can be used as a guide in selecting the appropriate training methods. The model displays both the independent and dependent variables that apply to the different training methodologies available. The model can be easily adapted by adding to or deleting from it whenever necessary, practical, or desired. Thus, it can be updated as time brings new methodologies, or changed as the organization's goals change. The key components of the model are as follows:

Cost - direct expenses of development and administration

Training Objective - identification in terms of knowledge, skills or attitudes

Time - amount of training hours required of trainees

Class size - some methods are effective only in small groups, while others require  
a larger number of participants to be efficient

Learning Principles - Developed psychological research as it applies to various  
training methodologies (12-16)

TABLE 3

## A CONTINGENCY MODEL OF TRAINING METHODS

TRAINING TECHNIQUES:	CONSTRAINTS				LEARNING PRINCIPLES				TRAINING OBJECTIVE		
	COST (Low-High)	TIME (Short-Long)	CLASS SIZE (Small-Large)	OTHER	ACTIVE PARTICIPATION (Low-High)	PRACTICE (Little-Much)	REINFORCEMENT (Seldom-Frequent)	FEEDBACK (Little-Much)	CONCEPTUAL	ATTITUDE	MOTOR SKILLS
Orientation											
Job Inst.											
Apprentice											
Assistant											
Job Rotation											
Junior Board											
Coaching											
Vestibule											
Lecture											
Special Study											
Films											
Television											
Conference											
Case Study											
Role Playing											
Simulation											
Programmed Inst.											
Laboratory Training											

SOURCE: John W. Newstrom, Training & Development Journal, "SELECTING TRAINING METHODOLOGIES," Oct. 1975, pp. 12-16.

Using the model can be beneficial to the training manager and the organization. The most obvious benefit of completing the model is its assistance in choosing the method(s). In addition, the exercise may help the trainer to recognize the good and bad points of the methods presently used, leading to improvements in current strategy. Finally, should it be necessary, this action will give some insight into the search for replacement methods.

### TRAINING GOALS AND STRATEGIES

The realm of available training methods and procedures is very large. These have been separated into groups or types of training. Wexley and Latham break them up into on-site and off-site methods, management theory, and management methods (101). Table 4 illustrates a classification of on-site methods. According to the authors:

...The main advantages of on-site training are that the problems of transfer of learning and training costs are minimized. This is because the trainees learn the skills and knowledge in the same physical and social environment in which they will work once training is completed. Moreover, with certain of these techniques (e.g., apprenticeship training, on-the-job training, job rotation) the trainees contribute to the organization while they are learning, which defrays training costs. The main limitation of on-site training is that sometimes co-workers or supervisors acting as trainers do not have the motivation or the capability to provide trainees with worthwhile learning experiences. (102)

The goals referred to in the table below are the purposes for the training, whether it be to increase self-awareness, job skills, or motivation of employees. The strategies refer to the process by which goals are to be achieved. These may be theories of behavior or just a decision on where the training emphasis will take place. Cognitive refers to thoughts or ideas. Behavioral and environmental are self-explanatory.

Table 4 - On-Site Methods Classified According to Goals and Strategies (Wexley, Latham, 103)

STRATEGIES	GOALS		
	Self-Awareness	Job Skills	Motivation
	Cognitive	Career Development	Orientation Training and Socialization of new employees
	Behavioral	On-The-Job Tng Apprenticeship Training	Coaching
Environmental		Job Rotation	

In addition to the concept of on-site training, many organizations may prefer some kind of off-site training. This decision will usually put the training in the hands of a more experienced trainer or team, and provide more efficient facilities. Table 5 illustrates the off-site methods classified by goals and strategies.

According to Wexley and Latham, the benefits of off-site training include:

- allowing the trainee to learn in a setting away from the day-to-day job pressures
- the use of competent outside resource people who are trained trainers (technicians, university faculty, consultants)
- exposure of trainees to individuals with extensive experience and expertise (126)

A serious limitation of off-site training can be the transfer of learning from the "classroom" to the job. However, highly effective off-site procedures include those which simulate essential characteristics of the actual job, so that trainees learn to behave during training the way they will have to behave on the job (Wexley and Latham, 127).

Table 5 - Off-Site Methods Classified According to Goals and Strategies( Wexley and Latham, 127)

		GOALS		
		Self-Awareness	Job Skills	Motivation
STRATEGIES	Cognitive		Lecture Audio-Visual Programmed Instruction	
	Behavioral		Computer-Assisted Instruction Equipment Simulators	
	Environmental			

When considering methods, it is not enough to consider the specific methods themselves. The company must decide what its goals and strategies are, where it wants to have the training done (based on costs and other considerations), and some sort of model, such as the one in table 3. Another model is included in exhibit 14, which illustrates examples of management development program characteristics.

A short discussion of several of the more popular training methods follows, with applications to adult learning, as appropriate.

#### Lecture

It is estimated that seventy per cent of training is done by the lecture method, which is quick, efficient, and usually inexpensive. The lecture enables the trainer to condense materials into a presentable format, and offers the additional benefit of having an expert in the field make a presentation. A lot of information can be given in a short time. The lecture method is certainly a widely accepted method and therefore does not meet much resistance when used (Huber).

There are some drawbacks to this method. Learners usually listen and learn at different speeds, while the lecture proceeds on one level. At whom does the lecturer aim? There is

limited participation in this process. Passive learning sometimes leads to boredom, absenteeism and tardiness. By sitting in a lecture room, there is no evidence of the trainees working environment, making it difficult to relate to performance when back on the job. It is also not effective for modifying attitudes, job-related skills, problem-solving abilities, or interpersonal skills.

When combined with media techniques, such as live monitors, movies, closed circuit TV and video, the lecture technique can be an effective basis for discussion, however. When there are too many participants, which is often the case, this type of training does not lend itself to constructive participation. The main objectives of the lecture method should be to convey information, to perform orientation, and to summarize training information and results.

#### On-The-Job Training (OJT)

This is the most widely used method of training new personnel (Wexley and Latham, 1977). Organizations think it is cheaper and easier than sending someone off to a training program, or spending the money to set up a more sophisticated program. This is sometimes true, but not necessarily the rule.

In this method, employees are normally assigned to an experienced worker, who is expected to provide a favorable role model. This "trainer" is expected to take time from regular duties to provide training. There is a certain economy of costs involved and the trainee can receive attention and feedback, as he/she performs, but it doesn't always work out this way. Additionally, some line workers may find training others threatening to their own job security. Moreover, such OJT may result in a productivity drop since trainer and trainee must, of necessity, counsel as they work. While OJT can and does work, it is a questionable substitute for a carefully designed training and development program.

Wexley and Latham make some suggestions for setting up a good OJT program:

- Do not create a threatening situation for the trainer.
- Provide rewards for the trainer's extra responsibility.
- Carefully pair workers to minimize differences.
- Choose trainer by ability to teach and desire for responsibility.
- Train the trainer first.
- Convince the trainer that this is not a vacation from regular duties.
- Rotate trainees so that they work with several trainers.
- Prepared the organization to accept the slowdown in work.
- OJT should be given in conjunction with other training (107-111).

### Role Playing

This process is not as widely used as some others. Perhaps only fifteen to twenty percent of in house programs use role playing as a viable training technique (Wohlking, 36-1). Its primary uses are for training supervisors in human relations skills, and training sales personnel in sales techniques. Other uses are for interviewing, grievance handling, group problem solving, performance reviews and service interaction.

In the context of adult learning, this is probably one of the most effective types of training. It is proactive, allows the trainees to utilize prior experience and knowledge, and can be critiqued immediately. When combined with other techniques, such as video, this experience can be unsurpassed. Learning also takes place by imitating others, by providing feedback, and by analysis and conceptualization. A possible drawback is that some people may hesitate to "perform". In hospitality or service oriented businesses, however, this hesitation would not be conducive to good service, and thus must be overcome.



### Audio-Visual Techniques (AV)

These widely used methods are extremely flexible and have many advantages.

Techniques include: overhead projectors, film projectors, television, and video. AV can be used in lecture halls, classrooms, or almost anywhere. They can be used in conjunction with just about any other training technique, and usually improves upon them.

Specific uses of AV can include simulation of in-basket exercises, as a basis for discussion of interpersonal and social relationships, or actual occurrences. For the service industry, films can be used to demonstrate proper and improper actions on the job. Furthermore, videotapes can then be used to tape actual performance or role playing by participants. Trainees then have an opportunity to see for themselves as others see and hear them. This is an excellent form of feedback.

The other significant advantages of AV are (1) good visual demonstrations with the ability to start, stop, or provide close-ups. (2) easier organization wide training, as films, and tapes are copied and sent to all areas within an organization, and (3) as a basis for lecture and discussion.

### Classroom Instruction

Informal studies show that approximately 95% of adult training is done in the classroom (Broadwell,33-1) There are many good reasons for this; however, traditional classroom training is largely inappropriate for adults.

One reason that this method is used so widely is it's ease and convention; any room will do. Advocates say that everybody: gets the same message at the same time, starts and stops together, sees the information together, and interacts together. It is certainly cost effective, since only one instructor is needed. It is a flexible method for small group activity, individual work, or total-group work. Materials used are simple and traditional: screens,

chalkboards, easels, models and demonstration gear, to name a few. Benefits of the classroom are that it provides a setting for getting people together, and it can bring these people together to share common problems.

Classroom instruction however, has proven to be a most ill-used method (Broadwell,33-2). It is natural for the instructor to just "tell" information to the students, rather than interact with them. There is a problem with getting appropriate feedback, and all trainees learn at different speeds. Again, at what level learner do we "aim"? These characteristics, along with the authoritarian nature of classroom instruction, would suggest it is a fair to poor method for training adults.

### Group Methods

These methods may include conferences, meetings, workshops, or seminars. A common group method is the conference, which can be run as a small group discussion with the instructor acting as a guide or a "facilitator". The objectives of the conference method are problem-solving, modifying attitudes, or disseminating new information. Topics are chosen by the group and the instructor. Leadership is rotated, and agendas are set by the group. This facilitates participation and feedback, two of the most important factors in adult training.

This can be a positive experience when it is controlled, and when it provides for good evaluation of performance. It also has its drawbacks, in that it only applies to small groups, must have a limited content, and is dependent on the communication skills both of the participants and the instructor (Huber).

### Programmed Instruction

This is usually an excellent method of training. Programmed instruction can be used to teach company policies, procedures, and the specific actions necessary to accomplish a task.

It's strength is supplemental, however, since actual hands-on experience is vital in these areas.

Programmed instruction is highly structured, set at an individual's own pace, involves active participation, and provides immediate review and feedback. No instructor is necessary, and record keeping is easy. The negative aspects of this method include its high cost, the amount of time it takes to prepare it, and research indicates that the results are not any better than other methods (Huber). It is, however, a very effective method for adults who may have to train on a part time, or scheduled basis.

### Computer-Assisted Instruction

This is much the same as programmed instruction, but because of the flexibility of the computer, can be made more sophisticated. As the technology changes, this method should become more popular and appropriate for a wider range of purposes. Another monograph would be needed to properly discuss this type of instruction in depth, but a brief introduction will be presented here.

Computer-assisted instruction is a relatively new type of training. In it, the trainee usually interacts directly with a computer through a keyboard, light pen, auditory signal or some other device. The computer administers the program, keeps records, assesses progress and provides feedback. It is best used for administrative tasks, technical information, perceptual-motor tasks, or problem diagnosis. More recent and future applications may go beyond this limitation.

IBM and British Airways have successfully used this technique. In the case of British Airways, the computer was used in training clerks for a new reservation system (Wexley, Latham, 138). Typing exercises and actual transactions provided excellent simulation of real problems for the trainees.

Computer Assisted Instruction, as other methods, has its pros and cons. It requires less time to teach the same amount of information than conventional training and is more appropriate for the adult learner. Trainee reactions have been mostly positive. There are high costs in this program, however, and it may not always provide a unique solution to important problems. The bottom line is that this can be an excellent training process when used in conjunction with realistic and appropriate objectives. It should not be used as a single training approach or as a panacea for all training problems and challenges.

#### SUMMARY OF TRAINING METHODS

Choosing an appropriate training method can be a time consuming task. There are many methods available and each training manager has his/her favorite.

This discussion of training methods should provide some guidance in the process of choosing the best training device for an organization. Exhibit 15 offers more guidance on training methods by purpose and the primary benefits of several training methods. In the end, each organization must choose the best method for its goals and training objectives.

## CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In Pudd'nhead Wilson, which he wrote in 1894, Mark Twain observed:

Training is everything. The peach was once a bitter almond;  
cauliflower is nothing but cabbage with a college education.

If training isn't "everything", it is certainly important. That recognition has come relatively late to a substantial portion of the business community, hotel companies included. Only in the craft trades and the military has training received appropriate recognition, though in the military, the training emphasis has been primarily on military personnel. Opportunities do exist, though limited, for civilian employees. In the Services community, with the exception of upper level managers, there is a need to increase civilian participation in training activities. Since all organizations, no matter of what size, generally profit from well-planned training programs that include personnel at all levels, one may hope that civilians employed by the services will be more actively involved in training programs in the very near future.

As more training takes place, and as additional dollars are spent on it, observers -- particularly human resource researchers -- will be watching and evaluating, to see what kinds of training make perceptible differences in performance. The adult learning concepts discussed in this paper may hold the key. Corporations, businesses and other organizations must realize that they are dealing with adults, not children. As such, there are special needs that must be "considered." The most important of these ideas are: (1) climate setting, (2) involvement of the learners in the program, (3) consideration of experience, (4) proactive design of the training program, (5) motivation, and (6) self-direction.

Three different learning strategies were discussed in this paper.  
In my opinion, large organizations should use a combination of all three, with an emphasis on

the androgogical theory. This is the most practical for today's society and organization. Points to be taken from the other theories should include: (1) pedagogical training for quick transmission of information, and (2) synergogical training for heavy learner participation.

When developing training programs, a strong emphasis must be placed on writing meaningful objectives. This will be a great help when reviewing position descriptions and when evaluating training and employee performance. Good, simple, and clear objectives are a must for an effective training program. The employee must know what is expected of him, both in training and on the job. The manager must know what to expect in training, on the job, and when evaluating performance. Good objectives lead to good evaluation procedures.

Organizations and their managers face strong challenges in the future. As an example, the school systems in the U.S. have been turning out a high proportion of poorly educated people who are now in the job market and must be trained if the private sector of our economy is to maintain its leadership position. Not only must organizations train in the basics, they must also train for the new technology that is flooding the market continuously, making yesterday's skills obsolete. Managers must be prepared to help workers adjust to change, and to be successful, they must understand and practice good human relations precepts to help lessen the threat that employees feel when change occurs.

There will always be people, and technology will not stop advancing. Therefore, the need for effective management, educated in training techniques, becomes more and more critical. In today's hospitality industry, a common complaint is a lack of hospitality by the workers. All the technology in the world will not help solve this problem. Only good old-fashioned human relations and communications can be of help. With a new direction, emphasis on training, and other people programs, it is possible that our business and military communities can accomplish what we set out to do: provide the best possible service to our fellow men and women.

An article in the Wall Street Journal on May 6, 1986 ("LABOR-FORCE CHANGES expected by 2000 could jolt companies", summed it up with the following:

The National Alliance of Business, a non-profit group...predicts significant growth over the next 10 to 15 years in the "less well-educated segments of the population that have typically been the least prepared for work....

The population shift will be occurring, the group says, at the same time workers with critical technical skills will be retiring at an increasingly rapid rate, and when new technologies will be requiring higher skills for entry-level jobs. The result will be "pervasive mismatches between workplace needs and work-force capabilities.

*The alliance says business and government must improve training and tackle problems breeding unemployment.*

## EXHIBIT 1

## The Resource Requirements Model

<u>Equipment</u>	<u>Facilities</u>
Training Devices <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Computer</li><li>• Video</li><li>• Trainers</li></ul> TelecommunicationsLaboratory Equipment	ClassroomsLaboratoriesOfficesLibraries/Learning CentersCarrels
<u>Personnel</u>	<u>Materials</u>
InstructorsManagers/AdministratorsClerksProgrammersAnalysts/DesignersEvaluatorsConsultantsArtists	WorkbooksTextsSlides, TapesProgramsTestsPaperFilm

## Examples of Resource Components

Source. Greg Kearsley (1982). Costs, benefits, and productivity in training systems, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., p. 24.



## EXHIBIT 2

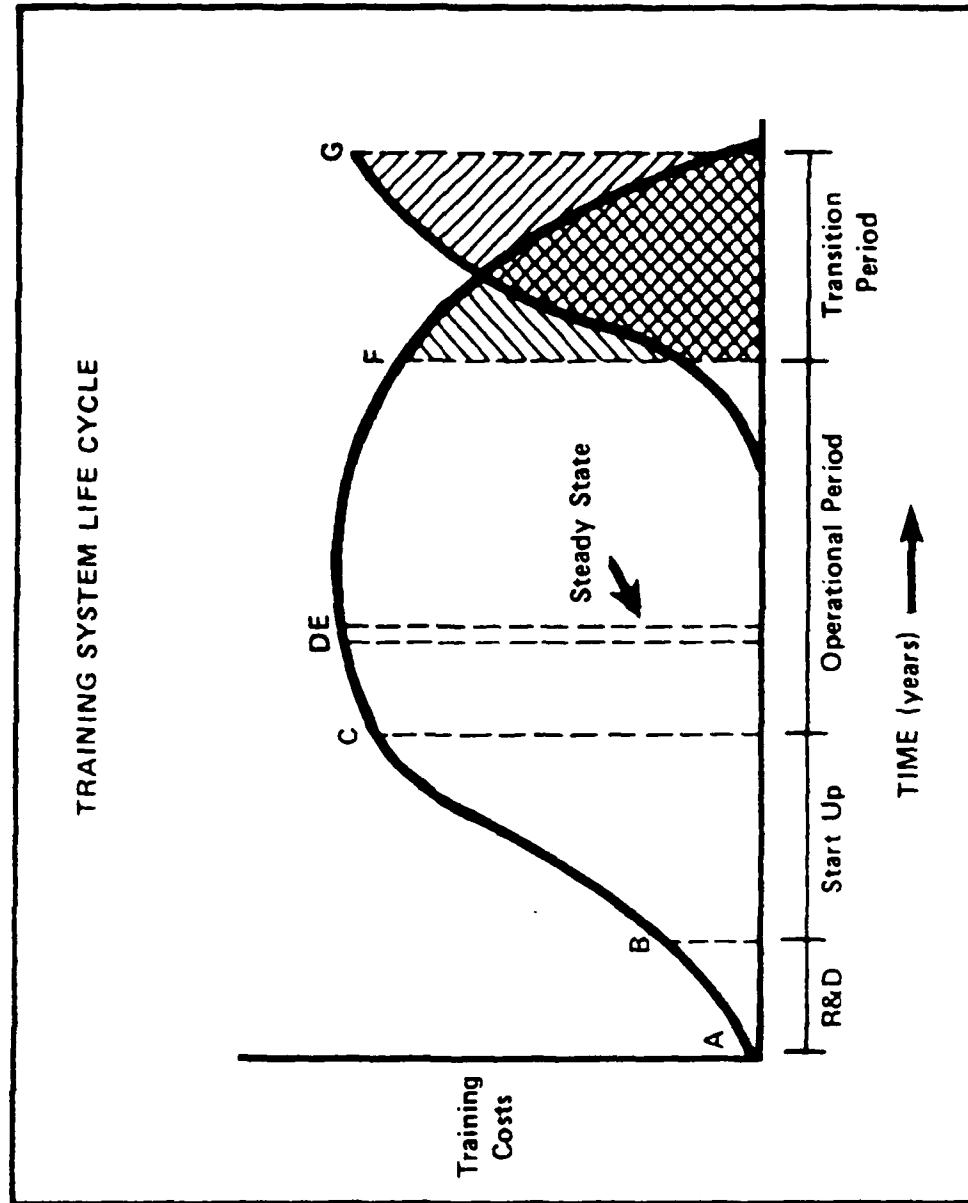
## The Resource Requirements Matrix

	Personnel	Equipment	Facilities	Materials
Analysis				
Design				
Development				
Implementation				
Evaluation				

Resource Requirements Matrix

Source Greg Kearsley (1982). Costs benefits, and productivity in training systems, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, p. 29.

# Different Models for Different Problems

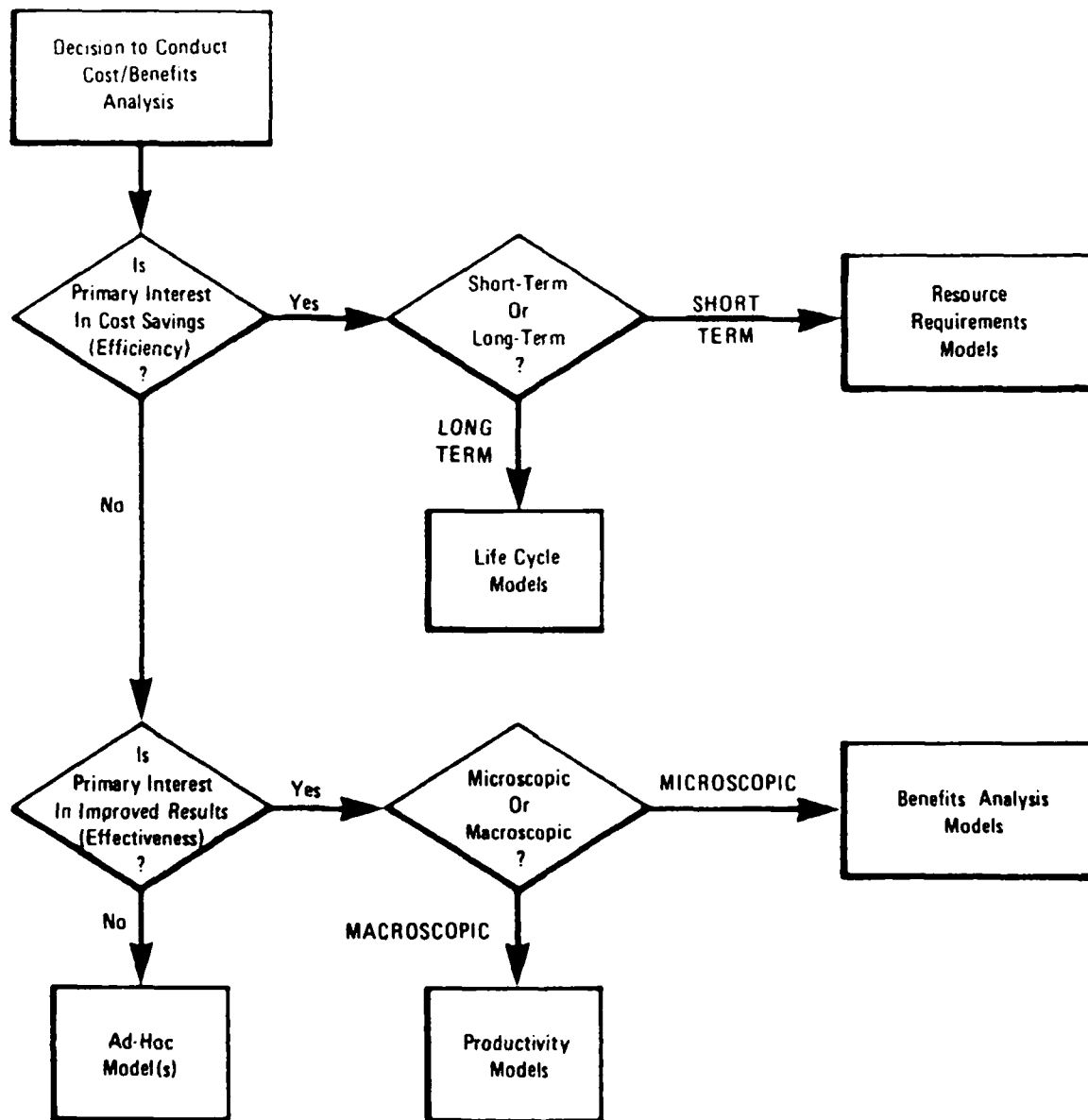


Training System Life Cycle

Source: Greg Kearsley (1982), Costs benefits and productivity in training systems, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, p. 14.

## EXHIBIT 4

## Different Models for Different Problems



Decision Diagram for Selection of Appropriate Cost/Benefits Model

Source: Greg Kearsley (1982). Costs, benefits, and productivity in productivity in training systems, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, p. 20.

## EXHIBIT 5

An Example of a Job Inventory Used with Tire Store Managers

	IMPORTANCE					AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT					
INSTRUCTIONS For each task activity, circle the number corresponding to its importance for your job and the amount of time you spend on it.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
	1 - <i>Not at all</i> important 2 - <i>Slightly</i> important 3 - <i>Moderately</i> important 4 - <i>Very</i> important 5 - <i>Extremely</i> important					0 - <i>Never</i> do this task 1 - <i>Very little</i> time compared to other tasks 2 - <i>Somewhat less</i> time compared to other tasks 3 - <i>Same amount of time</i> as other tasks 4 - <i>More time</i> compared to other tasks 5 - <i>A great deal more</i> time compared to other tasks					
1. Assign and define duties to <i>all</i> new store employees.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. Take a physical inventory monthly.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. Assign accounts to salespeople for collection.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. Monitor overtime payments to employees.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
5. Make sure the inside and outside of building is maintained in a presentable condition.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
6. Schedule and place advertisements in newspapers and radio.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
7. Make certain customers are greeted when coming into store and properly handled upon leaving.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. Establish a probationary period for new hires and review their performance periodically.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
9. Advise staff accountant of store claims.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
10. Arrange promissory notes payable at customers' bank if deemed necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ensure that trucks are routed profitably.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
12. Hold safety meetings with store personnel.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
13. Make telephone solicitations to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
14. Ensure that advertised products are available to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5
15. Discuss career goals with employees	1	2	3	4	5	0	1	2	3	4	5

Source. Wexley and Latham, (1981), Developing and Training Human Resources in Organizations, Scott, Foresman and Company, p. 44

## EXHIBIT 6

## Sample Job List for Position, Reservations Clerk\*

JOB LIST		
POSITION: Reservations Clerk	DATE PREPARED: 00/00/00	
TASKS: Employee must be able to:	J.B. Number**	
1. Identify room status	64	
2. Identify room rate structures for both individual and group bookings	65	
3. Determine the physical status of any given room from front office controls	66	
4. Operate reservations telephone	67	
5. Take and process telephone reservations	68	
6. Take and process reservations through correspondence	69	
7. Take and process reservations from the 800 number	70	
8. Take and process in-person reservations	71	
9. Use the reservations filing system	72	
10. Etc.		
*This is a partial job list. The list developed for a specific property should include all tasks to be performed.		
**Job Breakdown Number.		

## EXHIBIT 7

## Sample Job Breakdown #3

## JOB BREAKDOWN

Job Breakdown #82: The ability to register a guest

Equipment needed: Registration card/folio, credit card imprinter, pen, room rack, room key

WHAT TO DO	HOW TO DO IT	ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
1. Greet the guest.	1. Friendly, warm smile. "Good evening. May I help you?"	1. Guests are often tired when they check in. They may have been traveling and/or working all day. Unless the room clerk establishes helpful communication quickly, the guest may vent his/her tired feelings on the clerk.
2. Identify the name of the reservation.	2. "Sir (Madam), what name was that under?"	2. Reservations may be under the guest's name, a company name, or the name of the person who made the reservation. Check each name in the above order until you locate the reservation.
3. Secure complete folio formation.	3. "Here we are Mr. (Ms.) ..... Please complete the lower portion of the form."	3. Complete information is important for identifying the guest. This information may be used to locate the guest, mail the bill, return lost and found items, or forward mail and packages.
4. Secure credit information.	4. "Sir (Madam), will you be paying with a charge card?" If the answer is yes, ask the guest if you can imprint the card. If the guest plans to pay cash, positive identification is required and the first night's room rate must be collected. If the guest refuses to have the charge card imprinted, the card must be verified and the number recorded on the back of the registration card.	4. Company policy and state laws require positive guest identification. A charge card is sufficient. If a charge card is not available, a driver's license or passport is acceptable.
5. Assign room	5. Follow procedures learned under Assigning Guest-rooms—Job Breakdown #83. Complete the folio showing room assignment and rate. Tell the guest the room number you have assigned him/her. "Sir/Madam, that is room 1226, a double, and the rate is \$72."	5. If possible, the room should be in accordance with the guest's request.
6. Page bell staff	6. Say "Front, please." Tell the bellperson "Mr. (Ms.) will be in room 1226." Give the bellperson the rooming slip and the room key. Tell the guest, "Please have a good stay."	6. The desk clerk who has established goodwill and has the guest in a good mood can pass that feeling on to the bell staff. He/she should introduce the guest and say something pleasant as the guest follows the bellperson to the room.

Source. Lewis C. Forrest, Jr., (1983), Training for the Hospitality Industry, Educational Institute of the AH&MA p. 49

## EXHIBIT 8

**Sample Abbreviated Job Description: Busperson****JOB DESCRIPTION****Job Summary**

Assists food servers and maintains cleanliness. Keeps dining room supplied with clean utensils, china, glassware, condiments, and ice. Prepares coffee and tea served in dining room.

**Duties or Functions**

1. Assists food servers in their tasks.
2. Takes soiled dishes to the dishroom or kitchen.
3. Removes soiled linen and replaces it with clean linen.
4. Replenishes guests' butter supply.
5. Refills water glasses when necessary.
6. Brings clean silver to dining room station.
7. May set up tables with silverware, glassware, and clean linen.
8. Fills condiment containers as required.
9. Makes coffee and iced tea; fills ice boxes and bins.
10. Cleans and mops floors, dusts furniture and table tops, wipes chairs.
11. Helps wipe silver and glasses.
12. May run special errands.
13. Uses trays, broom, mop, dustpan, bucket, brush, and service towels.
14. Performs other jobs as assigned by supervisor.

**Criteria for Evaluation**

Evaluated on thoroughness of duties, pleasant attitude, courtesy to guests, relations with other employees, punctuality.

**Reporting Relationship**

Reports to: Dining Room Supervisor  
Promotion from: Dishwasher, Potwasher  
Promotion to: Storeroom Helper, Cook's Helper, Food Server  
Transfer to and from: Vegetable Preparer, Bar Back

**Qualifications**

Must be able to learn how to remove dishes, set tables, and clean dining area properly. Must be able to work rapidly during rush periods and still remain calm. Previous experience not required.

## EXHIBIT 9

*Task and Job Development***Sample Expanded Job Description: Busperson****JOB DESCRIPTION****Job Summary**

Assists in dining room by performing a variety of routine tasks. Removes food and beverage items and used dishes to kitchen, scrapes remaining food into garbage pails, replaces table linens, fills water pitchers and guests' glasses with ice water, replenishes butter supply, and maintains supply of clean linen, silverware and dishes in dining room. May keep serving counters supplied with food and ice from kitchen. May deliver containers of ice to various stations. Sweeps and cleans dining room, dusts furniture and fixtures, sets tables with glassware and silverware, cleans and polishes silverware, and may prepare coffee and iced tea. Performs other routine duties in dining room and kitchen as directed.

**Work Performed**

See job summary (above) and job breakdown for busperson position.

**Criteria for Evaluation**

**Responsibilities:** Handles food in accordance with sanitary regulations. Keeps dining area and equipment clean. Gives efficient, courteous service. Minimizes breakage.

**Physical demands:** Stands and walks short distances most of working shift. Reaches for, lifts, and carries materials weighing up to 50 pounds. Handles silverware and glassware. Pushes, pulls, stoops, and bends when using cleaning equipment such as brooms, mops, and towels.

**Qualifications**

**Education:** Ability to read, speak, write and follow simple written and oral directions.

**Training and experience:** Experience not essential. Worker reaches full productivity after short on-the-job training period.

**Job knowledge:** Must be familiar with simple details of arranging table settings, location of various types of dishes, and dining room procedures.

**Working Environment**

Works in a clean, well-lighted, heated or air-conditioned dining room. Makes frequent trips to kitchen which may be warm, moist, and odorous from cooking foods. Is subject to falls on floors made slippery by spilled food and liquids.



## EXHIBIT 10

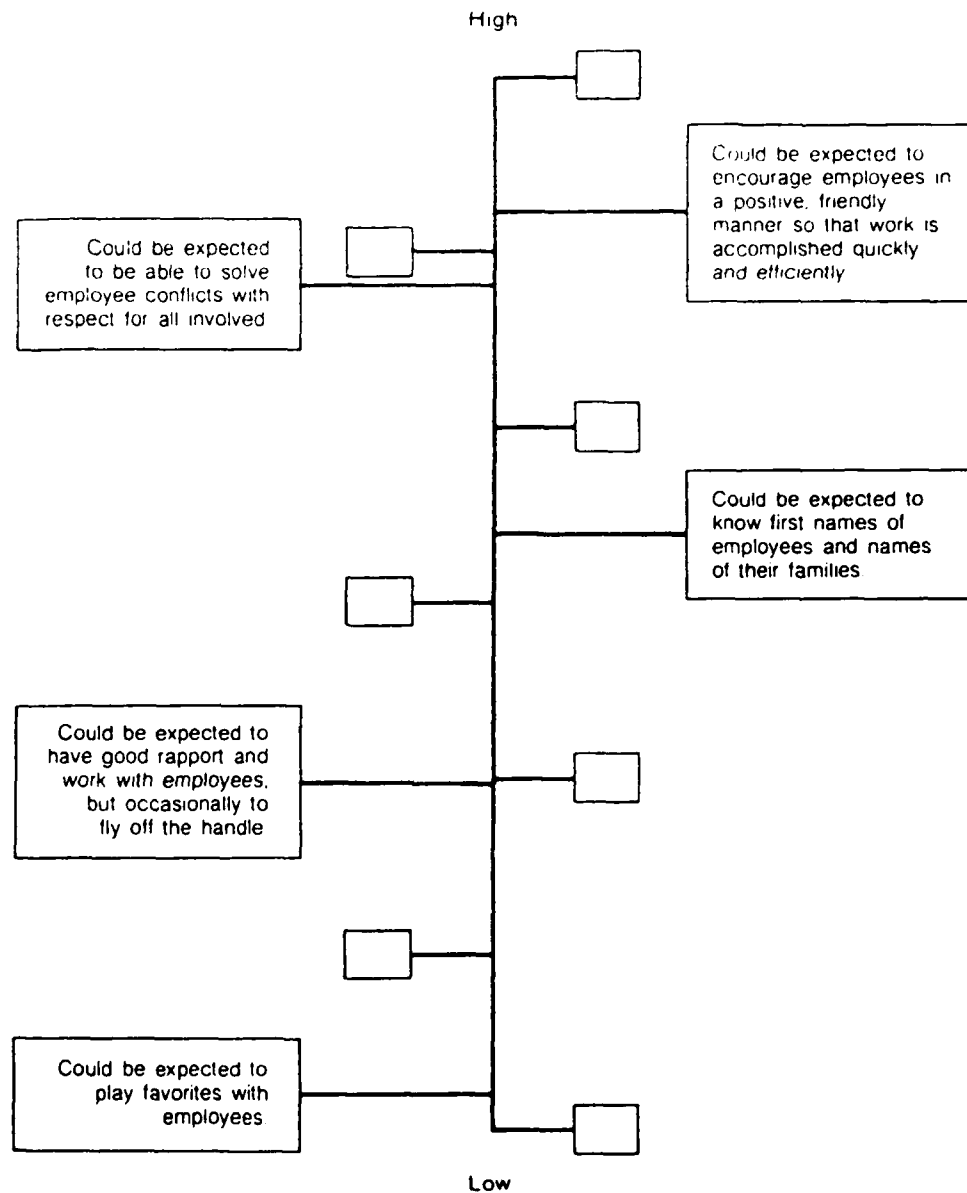
TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS				
EXPLANATION:			SUPERVISOR: Discusses strengths with subordinate during postappraisal interview.	
S = Outstanding Strength			INCUMBENT: Discusses needs and goals with Supervisor during postappraisal interview.	
M = Meets Requirements or Not Applicable to Job				
D = Development Need				
Management activity		S	M	D
PLANNING	Promoting improvements			
	Developing original ideas			
	Applying new ideas			
	Gathering information			
	Analyzing information			
	Planning objectives			
ORGANIZING	Organizing ability			
	Selecting people			
	Utilizing people			
	Delegation			
DIRECTING AND COORDINATING	Coaching			
	Training and developing people			
	Oral expression			
	Conducting meeting			
	Written expression			
	Keeping supervisor informed			
	Keeping subordinates informed			
	Achieving results through others			
	Personal acceptance by others			
	Setting standards for others			
CONTROLLING	Maintaining control of operations			
	Willingness to follow-up			
	Measuring results of operation			
	Control of costs			
	Control of quality			
	Expanding income			
	Improving net earnings			
OTHER				

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Incumbent \_\_\_\_\_

Fig. 9-8 Schaeffer training-needs-analysis form. (Adapted from a form created by V. Donald Schaeffer appearing originally in a private paper entitled "The Management Process.")

## EXHIBIT 11



Describe actual behaviors you have observed that support your rating.

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## EXHIBIT 12

## Example of a Behavioral Observation Scale (BOS)

**DIRECTIONS** This checklist contains performance-related job behaviors that foremen, their supervisors, and their subordinates have reported as critical to the foreman's job success. Please consider the above-named individual's behavior on the job for the past three months. Do not consider other foremen or this individual's behavior at other times in the past in making your ratings.

Read each statement carefully. On the basis of your actual observations or on dependable knowledge (e.g., hard evidence or reliable reports from others), circle the number that indicates the extent to which this particular foreman actually demonstrated each of the following behaviors. For each behavior, a 4 represents "Almost Always" or 95 through 100% of the time. A 3 represents "Frequently" or 85 through 94% of the time. A 2 represents "Sometimes" or 75 through 84% of the time. A 1 represents "Seldom" or 65 through 74% of the time. And a 0 represents "Almost Never" or 0 through 64% of the time.

## DIMENSION I. INTERACTIONS WITH SUBORDINATES

1. Asks an employee to do a job rather than tells him or her.  
Almost Never 0 1 2 3 4 Almost Always
2. Tells workers that if they ever have questions or problems with their jobs to feel free to ask him or her.  
Almost Never 0 1 2 3 4 Almost Always
3. Gives employees suggestions on how to do the job more easily.  
Almost Never 0 1 2 3 4 Almost Always
4. After assigning a difficult job, checks back to see if the worker is having any problem.  
Almost Never 0 1 2 3 4 Almost Always
5. When there is conflict (e.g., between two employees, between foreman and worker), takes the time to sit down and discuss the causes and potential solutions.  
Almost Never 0 1 2 3 4 Almost Always

Total = \_\_\_\_\_

Below Adequate  
0-4Adequate  
5-8Full  
9-12Excellent  
13-16Superior  
17-20

In the space below, record observations to support your rating.

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ber of injuries, scrappage weight, and so on. In general, economic measures can be broken down into two subcategories: those dealing with production (e.g., units produced, number of rejects, dollars earned) and those dealing with personal information (e.g., absenteeism, tardiness, grievances, training time needed to reach some acceptable standard of performance).

These variables may serve as excellent indicators of an organization's effectiveness, but they often present problems as measures of an individual's job performance. First, they cannot be meaningfully applied to many organizational positions. They are usually appropriate for such

## EXHIBIT 13

## Sample Group Training Plan for Front Desk Clerks

## TRAINING PLAN

**General Goal:** To improve the performance of front desk clerks

**Specific Performance Objectives:** At the conclusion of the training, trainees will be able to:

1. Register guests according to procedures outlined in the company's procedures manual.
2. Assign rooms according to guest requests for type of accommodation and be able to "up-sell" rooms.
3. Verify guest identity and credit according to established policies.
4. Make correct entries and adjustments on guest folios.
5. Satisfy special guest requests.
6. Respond to guest complaints according to property policies and guest relations practices.
7. Check out guests and handle all approved forms of payment.

**Performance Standards:** Employees must perform each job according to specifications in applicable job breakdowns.

**Employees Involved (names):** G. Harris, M. Taylor, B. Williams, B. Conners, H. Snyder, T. Schmidt, H. Bernstein, J. Tyson, K. Evans, B. Atwood, F. Fisher, P. Harnett.

Date	Time	Location
9/14/80	2:00-3:00 p.m.	Cherry Room, Front Desk
9/15/80	2:00-3:00 p.m.	Cherry Room
9/16/80	2:00-3:00 p.m.	Cherry Room
9/17/80	2:00-3:00 p.m.	Appleblossom Room
9/18/80	2:00-3:00 p.m.	Cherry Room, Front Desk

**Methods of Instruction (by session) and Assignment of Trainer:**

Session #1 Lecture/Discussion, Role Plays	(Obj. 1-3) J. Jones
Session #2 Demonstration, Conference	(Obj. 4) J. Jones, A. Smith
Session #3 Lecture/Discussion, Panel	(Obj. 5) J. Jones, T. Doe S. Tyler, M. Beck
Session #4 Role Play, Case Studies	(Obj. 6) J. Jones, A. Smith
Session #5 Demonstration	(Obj. 7) J. Jones, A. Smith

**Equipment Needed (by sessions)**

- Session #1 Folios, reservation examples, chart of room types, rate card, job breakdowns #301, #302, and #303
- Session #2 Folios, posting equipment, job breakdowns #304
- Session #3 Guest relations policies, guest services handbook, job breakdown #305
- Session #4 Guest complaints policy, guest services handbook, job breakdown #306
- Session #5 Folios, cash register, cashiering manual, credit card imprinter, credit card vouchers, cash bank, job breakdown #307

**Training Room Setup (by sessions):**

- Session #1 Schoolroom, podium, flip chart
- Session #2 Auditorium, demonstration around posting machine at the desk, flip chart
- Session #3 Schoolroom, head table with 3 chairs, flip chart
- Session #4 Rounds (4 per table), flip chart
- Session #5 Schoolroom, demonstration around cash register at the desk, demonstration and practice of credit card procedures in classroom

**Audio-Visual Requirements:** Flip chart in classroom each session

**Class Rules:** No planned breaks due to length of sessions (1 hour each).

Smoking is permitted in classrooms.

Smoking is not permitted in Front Desk area during demonstrations.

**Evaluation**

- Session #1 Knowledge test of check-in policies and procedures; performance testing of role plays
- Session #2 Performance tests of posting operations
- Session #3 Knowledge test of guest relations and guest service policies and procedures
- Session #4 Performance tests of role plays; attitude assessments of case situations
- Session #5 Performance tests of cashiering and check-out operations

**Special Notes or Reminders:** Block rooms for training at least 2 weeks prior to first session.

## EXHIBIT 14

Typical Management Development Program Characteristics for Three Levels of Management in Organizations of Different Size

Management Level	Organization Size		
	Medium to Large, Less than 2,000 Managers	Very Large, 2,000-8,000 Managers	Giant, over 8,000 Managers
Executive Level	Programs largely individualized. Primarily outside company, some internal on contract, some completely ad hoc. Oriented toward conceptual skills and strategy.	Programs divided between in-house and outside company. Oriented toward conceptual skills, strategy, and environmental understanding.	Programs largely in-house and centralized, supplemental lectures, some outside company exposure. Oriented toward interface of internal and external environment.
Middle Level	Programs mixed between in-house (supplemented by lecturers) and outside company. Oriented toward human and conceptual skills and analytical abilities.	Programs largely in-house, with little outside company. Conducted on centralized corporate basis. Oriented toward human and decision-making skills, geared to company policy.	Programs predominantly in-house, either corporate or division centralized. Orientation is on human, decision-making, and conceptual skills.
Supervisory Level	Programs on-site in division. Orientation is on basic technical and human skills, geared to company procedures.	Program on-site in division. Orientation is on basic technical and human skills, including company procedures.	Programs on-site in division. Orientation is on basic technical and human skills, including company procedures and policy. Program instructors are centrally trained.

Source: Lester A. Dignan (1980), Management development: Needs and practices, Personnel, (July-August), p. 49.

## EXHIBIT 15

## Listing of Training Methods by the Purpose of the Method

Purpose of Method			
Present Information	Assess Trainee's Reaction Time	Provide On-The-Job Practice and Observation Opportunities	Multi-Purpose Orientation
INFORMATION PRESENTATION TECHNIQUES	SIMULATION TRAINING METHODS	ON-THE-JOB TRAINING	PROCESS APPROACHES
• Lecture	• Case Analysis	• Job Rotation	• Behavioral Modeling
• Conference	• Incident Method	• Vestibule Training	• Organization Development
• t (training) group or sensitivity	• Role Play	• Committee or Task Force Assignments	
• Programmed Instruction	• In-Basket Exercises	• On-the-job Coaching	
• Independent Study	• Business Games	• Observational Learning	
	• Games		

Source: Adapted from J.P. Campbell, Marvin D. Dunnette, E.E. Lawler, and K.E. Weick (1970), Managerial behavior, performance and effectiveness, McGraw-Hill Book Co.

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